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THE MALE TEACHER IN THE PRIMARY CLASSROOM

BY

©

R. SHARON SEIGEL

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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?

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Male Teacher in the Primary Classroom", submitted by R. Sharon Seigel in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Date Oct 16, 1978

In loving memory of my mother

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to systematically explore the issue of the male primary teacher. Two diverse research approaches were employed. The first approach was objective, involving the use of a verbal interaction analysis system in the classrooms of twelve male and twelve female primary teachers. The second approach was more subjective, consisting of a series of interviews designed to investigate teachers', administrators', parents' and pupils' opinions of, and responses to, male primary teachers.

Results obtained from the analysis of the verbal interaction data indicates that male teachers and female teachers are basically not very different from one another in terms of classroom teaching style and pupil interaction. No significant interactions between teacher sex and pupil sex were found.

Data obtained from the interviews suggest that male primary teachers have been satisfactorily integrated into the primary school system. Most respondents expressed a desire for an increased number of male teachers at this level.

Possible explanations for the findings were presented and discussed, and results were compared with those of other researchers. Implications for future research in the area were suggested, and ideas for implementation by school systems were offered.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

> The school as it is constituted today is not a sex neutral institution. Teachers, like others in our society, are socialized as male and female...
> (Grambs and Waetjen, 1975, p. 165)

During the preschool years, a child acquires the concept of male and female. He or she learns that some people are men and some are women, that one parent is male while the other is female. Yet when a child enters school, he or she is likely to be exposed to only female teachers for a period of several years. The child soon develops the notion that teaching is for females, and another incident of sex stereotyping has occurred.

The elementary school (especially at the primary level) has appropriately been termed "a women's world" (Sexton, 1965). The female character of the school is in opposition to the "masculine" outside culture. Female teachers reinforce female roles, and the male child is left confused as to what kind of behavior is expected of him. Peltier (1968, p. 184) comments:

> ...young boys who attempt to act in conformity with what they have learned as acceptable role behavior will be troubled and confused by the female dominated classroom...boys are handicapped by their different thinking styles, their inability to comprehend female language completely, and their unwillingness to conform to a feminine value system. For boys, the classroom may well be perceived as a place in which they must be quiet, neat and think like girls - all of which appears to be contrary to their embryonic ideas of what a boy should be.

It has been convincingly documented that boys experience more academic and social difficulties in the early grades than girls (Lee and Wolensky, 1973, review a great deal of the literature in this area). Is the feminine nature of the school a dominant cause of boys' difficulties?

The over-feminization of the school may be detrimental to female pupils as well:

> ...To the extent that an independent spirit and an enquiring mind are as important for girls as for boys in order to realize their personal and intellectual potential, any situation that encourages conformity, passivity, and uncritical thinking hampers optimal social and mental development. The challenge for our schools, then, is to impa t knowledge, foster self-control, and stimulate creativity in boys and girls alike while also recognizing their need to become industrious, assertive, and self-reliant individuals.

(Elkind and Weiner, 1978, p. 442)

Lee and Wolensky (1973) suggest that male teachers might provide classroom conditions which "are more congenial to young boys and more liberating for young girls" (p. 345). Research in the middle and upper elementary grades indicates that male teachers are very similar to female teachers in terms of classroom functioning, implying that teacher sex is not a variable in children's performance. But what of the primary grades? It is during these years that the child's sex role identity becomes molded, and during these years that he or she requires a strong sex-role model. Does the male teacher exert a stronger influence upon the primary school child than upon the elementary school child?

Literature concerning the role of the male teacher at the primary level is scarce and permits no definitive conclusions. The few existing studies in the area have been designed so poorly that their results are highly suspect.

No research exists which satisfactorily measures the male primary teacher against his female counterpart. Do male and female teachers behave differently in the classroom setting? Is one sex more verbal, more nurturant, or more rigid than the other when working with young children? Does teacher sex differentially interact with pupil sex?

Data concerning the reception of male teachers at the primary level is sparse as well. Why is it that 98% of primary teachers are female? Perhaps teaching at the primary level is not an accepted "male" role in our society. Or perhaps female teachers resent the intrusion of a male into their world.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the issue of male primary teachers in a systematic manner.

Because of the paucity of studies in this area and the absence of any systematic theory, this study, to be useful for educational guidelines and to help in building educational theory, explores the existing situation in a large school system. It encompasses two distinct research approaches. The first approach is technical and objective. Because of the importance of teacher-pupil interaction in determining classroom climate, and in indicating the possible influence of the sex of the teacher in the primary classroom, a standardized interaction analysis procedure (Flanders' Interaction Analysis System) was conducted. The second approach is more informal and subjective, and consists of a series of interviews designed to ascertain teachers', administrators', parents' and pupils' opinions of, and responses to, male primary teachers.

Data obtained from the interaction analysis procedures will provide information concerning differences in verbal interaction of male and female primary teachers. Information concerning differential treatment of pupils according to their sex will also be obtained.

It is hoped that the interview data will provide much needed information concerning the suitability of male teachers at the primary level. Should there be an increase in the number of males at this level?

The present study should offer several original contributions to research in this area. Firstly, to the knowledge of the present author, the Flanders' Interaction Analysis System has not been previously used to compare male and female primary teachers. Its usefulness in this capacity can thus be evaluated. Secondly, this study represents what appears to be the first attempt to systematically evaluate the differential interaction of male teachers with boys and girls. Finally, no objective study to date has used qualified male teachers who are in charge of their own primary classrooms as subjects.

The findings of the present study should offer valuable insights concerning directions for future research. In addition, practical information (of use to school systems) concerning hiring practices and teaching skills will be obtained.

Outline of the Study

The present study takes place in Edmonton, Alberta and involves teachers from the Edmonton Public School Board (E.P.S.B.). In this school system, only 2% of the teachers of Kindergarten to Grade 3 are male. The figure is typical of most North American schools, according to Lee (1973).

In Chapter 1, the major issues related to the area under investigation have been introduced. Chapter 2 expands on the theory and research presented in the introductory chapter. The definitions, limitations, and questions involved in the study are presented in Chapter 3, and the methodology of the project is discussed in Chapter 4. Chapters 5 and 6 contain the analysis of the data and a presentation of the results for each methodological approach. Finally, Chapter 7 summarizes and discusses these results, draws conclusions and implications from them, and offers suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Section I of this chapter will examine the classroom situation and the differing experiences of male and female children. The phenomenon of the "feminized classroom", the shortage of male teachers, and the difficulties faced by male pupils will be discussed in this section.

Section II will examine the differences between male and female teachers which have been determined by research studies.

Section I: The Classroom Situation

1. The Feminized Classroom

According to McCandless (1969, p. 15), social systems can be classified as masculine or feminine:

> A masculine social organization is task-oriented, pragmatic, ruggedly autonomous and independent, often impatient of human relations, full of initiative and innovation and, despite and often in consideration to its pragmatism, sometimes inclined to stop impatiently to ask, "Where are we going and what does it mean?" A feminine social organization, however, stresses happiness, self-actualization, and "getting along all right". It is sensitive to human relations and conservative; it jealously guards its status quo, safety, and security. It is nurturant, obedient, and responsible. When its values are threatened, it is exceptionally autocratic.

It is obvious from the above quote that societal institutions can function in vastly different ways. Different processes, values and goals of such organizations can be viewed in the light of those practiced by society as a whole.

A very prominent North American social institution is the elementary school, perhaps second in importance only to the family in its role as a socializing agency for the young child. Although the elementary school functions to educate children of both sexes, it has generally been perceived as a highly feminine social organization, dominated by females and promoting feminine values and standards... "a women's world", according to Sexton (1965, p. 57).

Approximately 85% of all elementary teachers (Kindergarten to Grade 6) and 98% of all primary teachers (Kindergarten to Grade 3) in North America are female (Lee, 1973). These figures are 77%

and 98% respectively for the system in which the present study is being conducted (Edmonton Public School System).

The disproportionate ratio of female teachers to male teachers at the elementary school level is assumed to be detrimental to the development of children of both sexes (girls are locked into sex roles) but especially to that of young boys. According to Lee (1973, p. 81):

> Female teachers create feminized schools, which ipso facto, become congenial settings for girls and conflict ridden for boys. Schools presume that passive and docile children are disposed toward learning and easy to manage. For this reason, schools hire women, who, because of their own sex-role socialization, are themselves more manageable than men and more likely to transmit such attitudes to children. The transmission of these attitudes apparently evokes resistance from young boys and cooperation from girls.

The young boy's resistance to his feminized school environment manifests itself in terms of inferior academic achievement and social adjustment as compared to that of the young girl. The feminization of the classroom, making it more suitable for meeting the needs of female children, was seen as perhaps the major source of young boys' academic difficulties as much as 70 years ago (Hall, 1908).

More recently, a great number of others (for example, Grambs and Waetjen, 1966; Sears and Feldman, 1966; Sexton, 1969) have suggested that the problems of boys are due to too many female teachers in the elementary school system. Such researchers have investigated the hypothesis that the values and practices of the female teachers (and hence, of the schools) favour girls and discriminate against boys.

The school as an institution requires boys to be docile and passive; the female teacher's definition of the appropriate student role includes more characteristics generally attributed to girls than to boys. The female teacher is not viewed by boys as a suitable model for imitation; therefore, the potential for incompatibility between boys and schools is present (Lee, 1973).

Because the female oriented environment of the school is alien to the generally masculine culture of the "outside world", it is often difficult for boys to see school as an appropriate masculine activity. School success, according to Firester and Firester (1974), depends on conformity to feminine values, and manifestations of maleness are met with negative consequences.

Recently, there has been a great deal of concern about the welfare of boys growing up in female dominated environments which foster values more closely associated with the female rather than the male role. Increasing numbers of children are being raised solely by the mother because of marital separation or divorce, and even in a two-parent family, the father is often absent for long periods of time due to career commitments. Children are commonly placed at an early age in Day Care Centers, an industry staffed almost exclusively by women. Exposure to males, then, may be very minimal for the contemporary child. Concern about the possible effect of this relatively male-absent environment on the development of female children has also arisen (Lee, 1973).

Several suggestions for de-feminizing the young child's school environment (thereby making the school a more positive experience for boys) have been proposed. Lyles (1966), for example, suggests segregating children according to sex, while Bentzen (1966), advocates delaying the entry of boys (who are maturationally behind girls) by a year or so. Sears and Feldman (1966) feel that changing the teacher's sex-linked expectations of children's behavior is a useful idea.

The usual proposed solution, however, is the introduction of more male teachers into the elementary classroom to serve as role models for the boys and to generally "masculinize" the school environment. Having male role models is essential to the healthy growth and development of the young child (Milgram, 1972). Male teachers would facilitate sex-role identification, helping children of both sexes learn the differences between manly and womanly behavior (McCandless, 1969). In addition, instructional stress for boys would be reduced and a more varied environment for girls would be provided (Lee, 1973). Sexton (1969), a strong advocate of more male teachers, suggested that boys would have fewer problems in school if the male norms of aggression, autonomy, success in technological skills, group solidarity, and adventure were stressed in the classroom. Male teachers would initiate the types of activities and provide the atmosphere necessary to promote such norms.

A number of educators and psychologists have suggested that male teachers might act as father substitutes for young children (Hetherington and Deur, 1971; Biller, 1970). Father absence has been found to be related to deficits in appropriate sex-role development of boys and girls (Biller, 1969; Nash, 1965). In turn, deficits in sex-role development have been found to be related to problems in academic achievement (Anastasiow, 1965; Ferguson and Maccoby, 1965). Children seem to need a male figure; one study (Cortes and Fleming, 1968) demonstrated that father-absent fourth grade boys expressed a significantly greater preference for male teachers than did father-present boys. The presence of the male teacher might ameliorate some of the consequences of father absence and low father availability for both boys and girls.

2. The Shortage of Male Teachers

As noted earlier in the chapter, very few men teach at the elementary school level and even fewer at the primary level.

Historically, the practice of employing female teachers to teach in the early grades was a result of cultural and economic factors (Milgram, 1972). Society felt that teaching young children was an occupation best suited to the female temperament (Lee, 1973). Teaching was "women's work", and the resulting low prestige and low salary of this occupation made it difficult for a man ("the breadwinner") to enter the field.

Few men can see themselves participating in this "feminine activity" and their attitudes appear to be of a perpetual nature. Hofstadter (1963, p. 320) notes:

> There are often not enough male models or idols among their teachers whose performance will convey the sense that the world of the mind is legitimately male, who can give them masculine examples of intellectual inquiry or cultural life, and who can be regarded as sufficiently successful and important in the world to make it conceivable for vigorous boys to enter teaching themselves as a livelihood. The boys grow up thinking of men teachers as somewhat effeminate and treat them with a curious mixture of genteel deference (of the sort due to women) and hearty male condescension. In a certain construct, the male teacher may be respected, but he is not "one of the boys".

Many years ago, Waller (1932) observed that the male teacher is assimilated into the female character ideal that isolates him from normal male activities. He remarked: "It has been said that no woman and no Negro is ever fully admitted to the white man's world. Possibly we should add men teachers to the list of the excluded" (1972, p. 50).

Even today, males teaching young children are often faced with prejudice and discrimination. Lee (1973, p. 82) comments:

> ...the occasional male elementary teacher, especially if he teaches at the earliest grades, is viewed as an interloper at best and is often suspected of deviance.

Murgatroyd (1955), speaking of his own experiences as a primary teacher, notes that he was regarded as "not quite normal" for wanting to teach first grade. Arnold (1965) said the parents of his pupils questioned the appropriateness of his teaching at the kindergarten level. Prejudice from female teachers, a lack of acceptance, and the general stigma attached to men working in the elementary schools have been discussed by others (Nolte, 1972, and Milgram and Sciarra, 1974).

Male elementary teachers have occasionally been suspected of homosexuality (Wilson et al). Such accusations have led to studies such as those conducted by Kaplan (1948), Biedenkapp and Goering (1971), and Vroegh (1973). Kaplan examined responses to a questionnaire, and concluded that the male elementary teacher is of normal physical development, and is not distinguishable from the average man of similar educational background in terms of his personality, interests, or behavior. Bidenkapp and Goering found that male teachers of young children (fifth and sixth graders) were as masculine as male high school teachers. In Vroegh's study, colleagues of the male teachers were asked to rate them on their masculinity. Her results showed that the male elementary teachers held appropriate sex-role identities.

Perhaps as a result of such biases against male elementary teachers, men who work with young children need to feel really "male":

> A gentle, sensitive nature must be coupled with a toughness, a strength of body, mind and spirit. When he feels really male a man can show gentle concern and this too becomes a strength (Kendall, 1972, p. 360).

"Having a man around the class" has been acceptable to small children, even though appearing "odd" to the adults. Abbott (1968, p. 45), for example, observed that

> ...young children respond as quickly and effectively to a man as to a woman, and that many of the youngsters turned most naturally to a man.

3. The School Experience of Boys

That boys have a more difficult time than girls, academically and socially, in the elementary grades is a well-documented fact. Lee and Wolensky (1973) comment that "...boys receive a disproportionate share of low school marks, grade retention, referral to extra-classroom specialists, and informal teacher disapproval" (p. 343).

In this section, the literature that has led Lee and Wolensky to such conclusions will be summarized. Female teachers were involved in all research cited, unless it is otherwise stated.

a) Teacher Expectations and Pupil Sex:

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) conducted a study investigating the significance of teacher expectations and perceptions. In this now classic study, the researchers interpreted their results as evidence that previous information concerning a student's abilities can affect the teacher's image of him and later influence the student's performance on achievement tests. However, a number of studies (see Good and Brophy (1974)) have failed to replicate these findings, suggesting that the teacher expectance effect may not occur consistently.

Several studies have shown that teacher expectations are related to the sex of the student. Waetjen (1965), for example, found that girls were favoured over boys and received higher grades on comparable achievement. Other research showed that in contrast to girls, boys were perceived by teachers as having more problems (Schaeffer, 1968); and displaying poor conduct and less ability to work independently (Lahaderne and Cohen).

Harari and McDavid (1973) found that their sample teachers graded boys with unpopular first names nearly a grade lower than boys with more popular first names. However, they made no such distinction among girls' names, suggesting that teachers' perceptions favour girls.

Davidson and Lang (1960) found that a teacher's perception of the student is related to the child's self-perception as well as his school achievement and behavior. Students who perceived that their teachers regarded them favorably behaved better and performed better academically than their peers who perceived negative regard. Boys, on the whole, perceived their teachers as responding less favourably toward them than toward girls. As might be expected, their behavior and academic achievement were poorer than girls. This study suggests that teacher perceptions have a significant effect upon classroom behavior and that sex differences are influential in shaping perceptions.

Motta and Vane (1976) asked their sample of kindergarten to Grade 3 teachers to complete a behavior rating scale for each child. The female children were perceived as more creative, more achievement-oriented, and more dependent than the males; the males as more aggressive than the females. Thus, the behavior of the children was perceived by teachers as conforming to the traditionally held sex-role stereotypes, despite the efforts of the women's movement.

As can be seen from the studies, boys are generally perceived more negatively than girls by female teachers. If Rosenthal and Jacobson's opinions concerning the power of expectations are true, perhaps these negative teacher perceptions are partially responsible for the difficulties faced by boys at the elementary school level.

b) Academic Achievement of Boys:

Reviews by Arnold (1968), Oetzel (1966) and a study by McCandless, Roberts and Starves (1972) demonstrate that boys consistently receive lower grades than girls, even when both sexes are equal in IQ and achievement test scores. All of these studies involved children enrolled in the later elementary grades.

Lavin (1965) noted that underachievement starts in the sixth grade for girls. but may start as early as the first grade for boys. Boys are over-represented in remedial reading programs; the ratio of boys to girls is at least 2:1, according to researchers such as Bentzen (1963), Gates (1971), and Harris (1961). As well, boys are referred much more frequently than girls for treatment of socio-emotional problems (Bentzen, 1963).

Bentzen (1963) and Peltier (1968) both found that about two-thirds of all grade repeaters are boys. Lee (1973) also noted higher promotion rates for girls.

McNeil (1964) observed that kindergarten males exceeded females in performance on programmed reading instruction. However, after exposure to female teachers in the first grade, the girls' reading skills were superior. McNeil inferred an association between teacher behavior and poor male performance in reading from these results.

To test McNeil's inference, Davis and Slobodian (1967) conducted an observational study in first grade classes. They found that teachers did not discriminate against male readers during reading instruction, although the pupils perceived both differential treatment (that boys received more negative teacher comments) and differential achievement (boys read more poorly than girls).

Good and Brophy (1971) found results similar to those of Davis and Slobodian when they observed teacher-pupil interaction during reading instruction. However, when examining interaction in non-reading classroom activities, they found that boys received more teacher criticism than girls. Perhaps these results explain why the children perceive teacher discrimination against boys in the reading setting; the children are unable to discriminate between behavior in reading groups and behavior in other classroom activities.

Boys and girls seem to receive different treatment in the classroom and to be reinforced differently for similar behavior. Serbin (1973), for example, found that preschool teachers were more likely to respond to boys' disruptive behavior and were louder in their reprimands to boys than to girls. Solicitous boys received more direction than solicitous girls, as well as more nurturant attention when responding appropriately. Girls were given increased attention when physically close to the teacher, while boys were not. Biber, Miller and Dyer (1972) observed that preschool teachers had more instructional contacts with girls than with boys.

Davidson and Lang (1960) and McNeil (1964) found that teachers gave girls higher ratings than boys on behavioral and motivational measures. Arnold (1968), McNeil, and Good, Sikes and Brophy (1973) all noted that boys receive more negative comments and criticisms than girls do in the classroom situation.

Schaeffer's (1968) comments seem to summarize the issue of boys' difficulties rather well; he notes that boys and girls seem to have the same problems, but boys have more of them.

c) The Children's View:

Are children aware of the fact that boys experience more difficulty and face more frustration than girls in the elementary school system?

Several experimenters (Davidson and Lang, 1969; Lippitt and Gold, 1959; McNeil, 1964; Meyer and Thompson, 1956; Spaulding, 1963; and Torrance, 1962) have reported that elementary children perceive their teachers to be more favourable to girls than to boys. Davis and Slobodian (1967), conversely, found that Grade 1 children did not perceive teacher discrimination against boys.

Both Jackson (1968) and Lee (1973) have observed that boys were more negative in response to school, while girls were more cooperative. Lippitt and Gold noted in their study that elementary school girls made friendly approaches to their teachers about twice as often as boys did, while boys made almost three times as many unfriendly approaches to their teachers as girls did.

The research, then, seems to suggest that children are aware of the difficulties experienced by boys in the classroom setting.

Section II: Sex of the Teacher

1. Differences Between Male and Female Teachers

a) Teacher Sex and Expectation:

It will be recalled that Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1969) classic study showed how information concerning a student's abilities can affect the teacher's image of that student and later influence the student's performance on achievement tests ("the Pygmalion effect"). In this section, the expectations and pupil perceptions held by male and female teachers will be examined. Is one sex more guilty of preconceived notions than the other?

No studies have been carried out which compare male and female primary school teacher's expectations and perceptions. The following studies were all conducted in middle elementary classrooms.

It was noted earlier that teachers generally perceive boys as experiencing more academic and personal adjustment difficulties than girls. Sex differences between male and female teachers appear to exist.

Schaeffer (1968), for example, found that although teachers of both sexes perceived boys as having significantly more problems than girls, the female teachers reported a significantly lower number of problems than did men, particularly in school achievement and social relations. Female teachers were found to be less discriminating on the basis of socioeconomic factors than male teachers (Yee, 1968; Lahaderne and Cohen, 1972). The results of these two studies thus place the female elementary teacher, as opposed to the male, in a better light.

However, some studies do favour men. Treffinger and Ripple (1967) found that male teachers were, on the whole, more accurate than female teachers in their perception of the anxiety level of their students (both male and female). Teachers generally were more accurate in predicting the anxiety level of members of their own sex.

The purpose of a recent study by Goebes and Shore (1975) was to determine whether teacher expectations of male and female students were related to the sex of the teacher. Using a semantic differential, they found that female teachers viewed the behavior of girls as significantly closer to the ideal student than did male teachers. These results also suggested that male elementary teachers are more favourably disposed to children of their own sex, a finding which has implications for improving the academic achievement of boys.

The preceptions of male and female teachers towards their pupils do not always differ. Lahaderne and Cohen (1972), for example, found no differences between male and female teachers in their assignment of ratings for academic performance, conduct, and ability to work independently.

Research on male and female teachers' perceptions when primary grade children are involved should be a future area of concern for researchers.

b) Process Studies:

Do male and female teachers behave differently in the classroom? Does their teaching style differ? Do they respond differently to same sex versus opposite sex students?

Kendall (1972) noted several differences between male and female teachers in the middle elementary grades. As opposed to the women teachers, men teachers were found to be more aggressive and physical with the children; they were rarely passive and rarely allowed the children to be passive for long. Men teachers tended to resist socialization to standard classroom procedures, and were less concerned with the priorities of many women teachers (for example, sitting still, staying clean, wearing hats, and so forth). Special kinds of experiences were offered to the children by male teachers, and more freedom to investigate was permitted. Kendall concluded that men do make a difference in the classroom climate, and seem to elicit pupil cooperation faster than women teachers.

The language used by male and female teachers in the classroom differs significantly, according to Sexton (1969):

> Schools words tend to be the words of women. They have their own sound and smell, perfumed or antiseptic. Just as there are dialects of class, occupation, and region, so there are distinguishable dialects of gender (p. 31).

Grambs and Waetjen (1966) also noted that women teachers used words differently than men, and that they had different perceptions of both persons and reality. Peltier (1968) and Waetjen (1962) both believed that female teachers ask questions that favour girls' styles of thinking. Jackson and Lahaderne (1967), in their study of male and female Grade 6 teachers, observed that the teachers differ in their pattern of verbal interactions: men produced more messages concerning conduct than did women teachers, but had fewer contacts with the pupils concerning instructional matters. Wells

(1974) noted that men injected more humor into their contacts with their pupils.

In a study of teacher characteristics, Ryans (1960) found that men were less responsible and businesslike in the classroom as compared to women. The men tended to favor a democratic classroom practice and were more inclined towards permissive, child-centered educational viewpoints. He also noted that the men in his sample were more emotionally stable than the women. Although Ryans' study has produced some interesting results, they must be interpreted with a great deal of caution: his sample included only two members of each sex.

Most of the research examined found that male and female teachers differed on only a few of many characteristics studied.

Tolbert (1968), for example, observed no sex differences in 15 out of 17 areas of teaching performance examined. The differences he did note were that women excelled in employing community resources to enrich the curriculum, while men excelled in directing and supporting physical activity and play.

Lahaderne and Cohen (1972) found no differences between male and female teachers in seat and work arrangements, instructional variety, or classroom exhibits. The male teachers were seen by the pupils as being less restrictive, but the students' attitudes towards school were more positive under female teachers.

Good, Sikes, and Brophy (1973) found no significant differences in 49 of 62 behavioral comparisons made between male and female teachers. From the differences they did observe, they felt that women were more relaxed, warmer, more discussion-oriented, praised pupils more frequently, and were more tolerant than men. The men appeared to need more structure and to focus more on content mastery than did the women.

Although the men and women in the above study behaved differently in some ways, they did not discriminate differentially on the basis of pupil sex. Both male and female teachers responded similarly to the children; both directed more negative comments to boys and interacted more with boys as opposed to girls. Other researchers (for example, Jackson and Lahaderne, 1967 and Lee and Wolensky, 1970), have also noted that both male and female teachers respond more negatively to boys than girls.

All of the studies reviewed in this section involved teachers of middle elementary grades. Perhaps, because of the increasing structure of school as one moves up grade levels, male and female teaching behavior has converged. It may be that teacher sex differences exist in the early grades, and that it is at this point that male teachers could have the greatest impact.

c) Outcome Studies:

What effect does teacher sex have on pupil achievement and personal adjustment? Once again, the results are inconclusive.

Very few studies could be found which examined this question in relation to very young children. Sciarra (1971) introduced male role models into preschool classrooms for eight weeks. He found no significant changes in the behavior he observed (aggression, interest in school, and susceptibility to peer group influence) in either sex. Gentile (1975) had a group of second, third and fourth grade Mexican-American boys tutored in reading by persons of both sexes. His results were inconclusive: female tutors were more effective with boys at the Grade 2 level, male tutors were more effective at the Grade 3 level, and there were no significant differences at the Grade 4 level.

The remainder of the studies examined involved teachers and children in the middle elementary grades. Only a very few found that teacher sex does make a difference in pupil achievement.

Smith (1971), for example, found that fifth grade boys taught by male teachers did better on a mathematics problem-solving test than did those taught by females. He also observed that boys taught by males had lower scores on a measure of psychological femininity and higher scores on school-related self-concept factors than boys taught by females. Shinedling and Pederson (1970) also noted a teacher sex difference; fourth grade boys had better scores on both the verbal and quantitative sections of the California Achievement Tests under male teachers.

Preston (1964) noted that in Germany, where male teachers are common, no differences in the reading level of boys and girls existed. Asher and Gottman (1973) examined the above premise by looking at the reading performance gain of children in the fifth grade (the earliest level at which there is a significant number of male teachers in North America). He found that there were no differences in overall reading gain that could be attributed to teacher sex.

McFarland (1966) and Steele (1967) also found that teacher sex did not affect reading achievement. Clapp (1967) and Farrell (1968) noted that pupil attitudes toward school and the classroom were not differentially affected by sex of the teacher. Farrell also observed that teacher sex did not affect the pupil's perceptions of teacher acceptance, while Sweely (1969) found that teacher sex did not differentially change pupil self-concept. Hull (1970) also found no differences in pupil achievement as related to sex of the teacher, but observed that male teachers were perceived as more rewarding psychologically.

Arnold (1968) conducted a study aimed at gathering information concerning the marking practices of male and female teachers and determining the influences of teacher sex on the school marks assigned to boys and girls. His results showed that the girls generally received higher grades than boys, and that the grades assigned by male and female teachers were quite similar.

2. Research Specific to Primary Grades

Very little research has been conducted concerning the differential effects of male and female teachers on children in the primary grades. Studies that have been carried out have not been of "outstanding quality" (Lee and Wolensky, 1973) in terms of design and sampling procedures.

Laboratory studies examining the effects of male or female experimenters on the responses of young children (nursery school and primary grade) have not produced consistent results. Gewirtz and Baer (1958) and Stevenson (1961) found that social reinforcement by opposite sex adults was more efficient in increasing the desired behavior than was reinforcement by a member of the child's own sex. Conversely, Stabler (1967) found that young boys were more responsive to the authoritarian commands of a male experimenter than were girls. The results from laboratory studies have been inconsistent, and have not confirmed the effects of sex of the experimenter as it relates to sex of the child to a satisfactory degree. As a result, generalizations to the classroom setting are of very limited use.

Triplett (1968) was one of the first researchers to compare the effects of male and female teachers on primary school children. He assigned kindergarten and first grade children to either all-male classrooms taught by male teachers or to coeducational sections taught by female teachers. His results demonstrated that while boys in both groups obtained similar achievement scores, boys in the all-male group scored higher on tests of self-esteem and attitudes towards teachers and school. However, these results are questionable because of design problems (Lee and Wolensky, 1973). The variable of teacher sex is confounded with grouping procedures, and one does not know if the male teacher or male peers (or the combination of both) enhanced the attitudinal growth of the boys in the all-male group.

A study by McFarland (1969) sought to determine whether there would be significant differences in academic achievement, personality, and sex-role identification in an experimental first grade (where men participated in instruction) and in a control first grade (taught by women). Their results showed that teacher sex made little difference in the achievement of the first grade children in arithmetic or in reading. They also noted that boys and those girls who identified with the male figure seemed to benefit more from male participation in their instruction than did girls or those boys who failed to so identify. Once again, these results are questionable and should be viewed cautiously; non-qualified male "teachers" were used (actually, they were juniors in college majoring in elementary education). As well, the composition of the experimental group was contaminated by the presence of a female teacher who acted as head of the group.

Lee and Wolensky (1973) observed male and female teachers and interviewed their pupils (preschool to second grade) in order to examine the following hypotheses:

1. Do male and female teachers distribute sanctions differently?
2. Do male and female teachers differ in their assignment of leadership positions?
3. Do male and female teachers differ in their grouping procedures?
4. Do male and female teachers differ in the kinds of activities they initiate or respond to in the classroom?
5. Do boys and girls have different attitudes towards teachers and towards themselves as a function of having male or female teachers?

Results demonstrated that female teachers were twice as evaluative of the children than were male teachers. Female teachers disapproved of boys more often than they approved of them, while the opposite was true for girls. Male teachers gave boys equal amounts of approval and disapproval, but hardly evaluated the girls. The teachers tended to assign leadership positions more often to children of their own sex than to children of the opposite sex. It was also found that the male teachers were more inclined to respond to ongoing activities, while the female teachers had a greater tendency to initiate activities. Male teachers tended to relate to male sex-typed activities, while female teachers tended to focus on neutral activities.

Each classroom used in the Lee and Wolensky study had both a head teacher and a female teacher. Due to a lack of male teachers, a female teacher (either the head or the assistant teacher) was also present in the classroom, thus contaminating the findings of the study. Hence, the findings of this study may not be generalizable to classrooms headed solely by a male teacher and must therefore be interpreted with caution.

The scarcity of well-controlled studies examining the differential effects of male and female teachers at the primary level is obvious. What is urgently required is a well-designed study employing a representative sample of classrooms taught solely by qualified male teachers in order to reliably examine this issue.

Summary

From the review of the literature, it is evident that research into the area of male teachers has produced little consistent evidence regarding their effectiveness in the classroom. The provision of male teachers is not a cure-all for boys' school difficulties (Grambs and Waetjen, 1975).

The majority of the studies revealed in this chapter were conducted at the elementary level. Very few differences were found to exist between male and female teachers at this level in terms of the quality of teacher-pupil relationships and the promotion of pupil achievement (Vroegh, 1973).

Lee (1973) felt that differences between male and female teachers might be more evident at the primary level, where the institutional constraints of the school may not yet be so rigid. To examine this hypothesis, Lee and Wolinsky (1973) conducted a study in the early grades. Although their design is questionable, they did find the existence of differences between male and female teachers at this level.

Despite the scarcity of empirical data, there exists a "conventional wisdom" or "folklore" favoring the provision of male teachers at the primary level. It is acknowledged (for example, by Grambs and Waetjen, 1975) that male teachers will not magically solve the educational problems of boys, yet educators persist in their stance that male primary teachers are a beneficial addition to the school system.

Lee (1973) discusses the need for more "process" research in this area; that is, research on what is actually happening in the classroom in terms of the interactions among sex of teacher, grade level, degree of institutional structure, and sex of student. In his words, "the objective of such research would be to discover and comprehend regularities in context. It would not be to confirm or disconfirm the a priori guesses of outcome oriented investigators" (page 98).

To the knowledge of the present researcher, Lee's research suggestions have not been satisfactorily considered. The present study represents an attempt to investigate the legitimacy of the "folklore" concerning male primary teachers. It is a process study, focussing on actual classroom verbal interaction, and employing a well-established objective techniques, the Flander's Interaction Analysis Sytem (summarized in Table 1).

Because of the lack of existing data in the area, no attempt can be made to predict either the existence of differences or the direction of differences between male and female primary teachers in terms of classroom verbal interaction. Therefore, formal hypotheses are not utilized in the study.

The interview section of the study also examines the "folklore" issue. How strong is the conventional wisdom that male teachers have a role in the primary classroom? Are there any data (albeit of a subjective nature) to prove or disprove this notion?

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF CATEGORIES FOR INTERACTION ANALYSIS

TEACHER TALK	INDIRECT INFLUENCE	1. *	ACCEPTS FEELING: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings is included.
		2. *	PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES: praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "um hm?" or "go on" are included.
		3. *	ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENTS: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to Category 5.
		4. *	ASKS QUESTIONS: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.
	DIRECT INFLUENCE	5. *	LECTURING: giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.
		6. *	GIVING DIRECTIONS: directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply.
		7. *	CRITICIZING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY: statements intended to change student behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference.
STUDENT TALK		8. *	STUDENT TALK - RESPONSE: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement.
		9. *	STUDENT TALK - INITIATION: talk by students, which they initiate. If "calling on" student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category.
		10. *	SILENCE OR CONFUSION: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

* There is NO scale implied by these numbers. Each number is classificatory; it designates a particular kind of communication event. To write these numbers down during observation is to enumerate - not to judge a position on a scale. (Flanders, 1966, p. 7)

CHAPTER III

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the present study were:

1. to determine the effect of teacher sex and pupil sex on classroom verbal interaction; and
2. to determine the opinions of teachers, administrators, parents and pupils concerning the presence of male teachers in the primary grades.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations may have a bearing on the present study:

1. Because of the scarcity of male primary teachers in the city of Edmonton, the sample size was of necessity small.
2. No attempt was made to control the content or the teaching style of the lessons observed.
3. No attempt was made to control pupil variables such as IQ or pupil achievement.
4. No effort was made to examine nonverbal classroom communication in the present study.
5. Although male and female teachers were matched on as many variables as possible, it is unlikely that this procedure was totally exact because of the limited population involved.

Underlying Assumptions

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. Verbal interaction between teacher and pupil is sufficiently consistent to permit identification, quantification, and analysis.

2. The quality of teacher-pupil interaction is an important factor in determining pupil learning.

3. A teacher's verbal behavior is a representative sample of his or her total behavior in the classroom:

> Interaction analysis is concerned primarily with verbal behavior because it can be observed with higher reliability than most nonverbal behavior. The assumption is made that the verbal behavior of the teacher is an adequate sample of his total behavior, that is, his verbal statements are consistent with his nonverbal gestures, in fact, his total behavior. (Flanders, 1965, p. 19)

4. Differences between the sexes do exist and may influence the educational process.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are of special relevance to the present study:

Interaction: A social relationship between people of such a nature that individuals mutually influence each other.

Flanders' Interaction Analysis System: A ten-category system which analyzes classroom verbal discourse by quantifying the social-psychological dimensions of teacher and student classroom verbal behavior.

Direct Teaching Behavior: Verbal statements of teachers that restrict the freedom of the student. Consists of three of Flanders' observation categories: (1) lecturing; (2) giving directions; and (3) criticizing or justifying authority.

Indirect Teaching Behavior: Teacher verbal statements that expand a student's freedom of action. Consists of four of Flanders' observation categories: (1) accepting feeling; (2) praising or encouraging; (3) accepting ideas; and (4) asking questions.

I/D Ratio: An index of indirect-direct teaching behavior. The total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1, 2, 3, and 4 of Flanders' categories is divided by the total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 of the categories.

i/d Ratio: A sharpened index of indirect/direct teaching behavior. The total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1, 2 and 3 of Flanders' categories is divided by the total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1, 2, 3, 6 and 7 of the categories.

Questions Under Investigation

1. Flanders' Interaction Analysis System

Specific questions related to Flander's categories of interaction analysis were as follows:

Question 1: (a): Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught groups in percentages of teacher talk to the classroom as a unit?

(b): Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentage of student talk?

Question 2: Are there significant interaction effects between male and female teachers in terms of their verbal interaction with male and female pupils ?

Question 3: (a): Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in I/D ratios?

(b): Are there significant interaction effects between male and female teachers in I/D ratios when sex of the student is involved?

Question 4: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in i/d ratios?

Question 5: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of acceptance and clarification of student feelings?

Question 6: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of praise or encouragement by the teacher?

Question 7: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of acceptance or use of student ideas?

Question 8 : Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of teacher questioning?

Question 9: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of teacher lecturing?

Question 10: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of teacher direction giving ?

Question 11: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of teacher criticism or justification of authority?

Question 12: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of student talk in response to the teacher ?

Question 13: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of student-initiated talk ?

Question 14: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of silence or confusion in the classes ?

Question 15: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in terms of the teaching patterns employed?

2. Interviews

Responses and opinions concerning the following issues were sought through in-person and telephone interviews with selected teachers, principals, pupils, and parents:

a) Should there be more males teaching at the primary level?

b) Are children's attitudes toward male and female teachers differentially affected by their sex?

c) Are parents' attitudes toward male and female teachers differentially affected by the sex of their child?

d) How does the male teacher perform in the classroom setting? Are his colleagues, his administrators, his pupils and their parents satisfied with his performance? Has there been any conflict resulting from the employment of male primary teachers?

e) Do male primary teachers differ from female primary teachers - in terms of personality, disciplinary techniques, and overall teaching style? If so, how?

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

The Sample

To establish the sample, the names of all male and female teachers employed at the primary level were obtained from the Edmonton Public School Board. Information concerning their ages, years of education, and years of experience was also gathered at this time.

Only 15 male teachers were employed on a full-time basis at the Kindergarten to Grade 3 level, as contrasted with several hundred female teachers. Of these female teachers, the 100 (an arbitrarily chosen figure) who most closely matched the male teachers in terms of age, education, and experience were selected as potential research subjects. These female teachers, in addition to the 15 male teachers, were asked to complete the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (Cook, Leeds, and Callis, 1951; see section on Instrumentation) as a final matching variable.

Twelve of the original fifteen male teachers agreed to participate in the study, and a matching sample (matched according to age, education, experience and scores on the attitude inventory) of 12 females was selected.

The average age of the final sample of 24 teachers was 29. The teachers had an average of 4.4 years of post-secondary education and 3.5 years of teaching experience. Their mean score on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (possible score ranges from -150 to +150) was +37.21, indicating a positive attitude.

These 24 teachers and their pupils were asked to act as subjects in the collection of the Flanders' data. In addition, the teachers, six pupils from each of their classrooms, the parents of these six pupils, and the principals of the schools involved were asked to participate in interviews conducted by the researcher.

Co-operation from the school principals and the teachers was obtained through letters, telephone calls, and visits to each school involved.

Instrumentation

The following instruments were employed in the present study:

1. Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI)

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (Cook, Leeds, and Callis, 1951) has been in extensive use over the past 25 years in the study of teacher's attitudes and their relation to classroom climate and achievement. Cook, Leeds and Callis state in their manual that:

> ...investigations carried on by the authors over the past ten years indicate that the attitudes of teachers toward children and school work can be measured with high reliability, and that they are significantly correlated with the teacher-pupil relations found in the teachers' classrooms. (1951, p. 3)

The main purpose of the instrument, then, is to measure those teacher attitudes which will affect his interpersonal relationships with his students.

The MTAI is a Likert instrument consisting of 150 items. It is self-administering, and requires approximately 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

In the present study, scores on the MTAI were used as one of the matching variables in the selection of subjects.

2. Flander's Interaction Analysis System (FIAS)

Background to the Flanders' System

Flanders' system of Interaction Analysis developed from social-psychological research concerning the social-emotional climate of the classroom. Basically, Flanders' theories are concerned with the role that the teacher's verbal behavior plays in creating this climate.

Flanders (1967, p. 103) offers the following definition of the term "classroom climate":

> The words classroom climate refer to generalized attitudes toward the teacher and the class that the pupils share in common in spite of individual differences. The development of these attitudes is an outgrowth of classroom social interaction. As a result of participating in classroom activities, pupils soon develop shared expectations about how the teacher will act, what kind of a person he is, and how they like their class. These expectations color all aspects of classroom behavior, creating a social atmosphere or climate that appears to be fairly stable, once established.

In the development of the FIAS, Flanders was strongly influenced by research carried out by Anderson et al (1945, 1946a, 1946b), Lippitt and White (1943), and Withall (1949), among others. The work of these researchers will be briefly discussed at this point in order to clarify the rationale behind the construction of Flanders' categories.

One of the earliest approaches to the study of classroom behavior and to the analysis of teacher behavior was that of Anderson et al. They investigated "dominative" and "integrative" contacts between teachers and pupils. Anderson (1939, p. 88) defines these terms as follows:

> Domination is the behavior of a person who is inflexible, rigid, deterministic, who disregards the desires or judgment of others, who himself in the conflict of differences has the answers...Domination is the technique of autocracy or dictatorship; it obstructs the growth processes in others. It is the antithesis of the scientific attitude and the open mind.
>
> The term integrative behavior was chosen to designate behavior leading to a oneness or commonness of purpose among differences. It is the behavior of a flexible growing person who is looking for new meanings, greater understandings in his contacts with others. It is non-coercive...It is consistent with the scientific approach...It is both an expression of growth in the person using it and a stimulus to growth in others.

Anderson et al. used an observation scale to record teacher contacts and patterns of pupil behavior. The results of their research studies demonstrate the significance of the teacher's role in the classroom. Their major findings were:

1. that the behavior of the teacher sets the classroom climate (1946a);
2. that the pattern developed one year by a teacher is likely to persist the following year with new pupils (1946b);
3. that the teacher's dominative and integrative contacts set a pattern of behavior that permeates the classroom (1946a);
4. that high frequencies of teacher integrative behavior are associated with high frequencies of socially integrative behavior, spontaneity, and initiative in pupils (1946a); and
5. that high frequencies of teacher dominative behavior are associated with pupils being easily distracted from their work (1946a).

Independent of Anderson's research, Lippitt and White (1943) were also investigating social-psychological climates. Although they employed boys' clubs rather than classroom settings for their studies, their findings are generalizable to the school setting. In their studies, adults were trained to act as leaders to the boys' clubs using one of three leadership approaches: (1) authoritarian leadership (consisting of dominative contacts); (2) democratic leadership (consisting of integrative contacts); or (3) laissez-faire leadership (consisting of infrequent integrative contacts coupled with attitudes of indifference). These leadership styles were role-played and rotated among the groups. Their major findings have been summarized as follows (Withall, 1949, p. 348):

1. different leadership styles produced different social climates that resulted in different group and individual behaviors;
2. conversation categories differentiated leader-behavior techniques more adequately than social-behavior categories;
3. autocratic leadership led either to aggressive rebelliousness or apathetic submission to the leader; and
4. leadership style is a primary factor in producing climatological differences.

Withall (1949) observed the similarity between these findings and the previously cited findings of Anderson et al. He consequently designed an objective technique (which proved to be reliable and valid) to measure the social-emotional climate of the classroom. His technique classified teachers' statements into seven categories along a continuum ranging from learner-centeredness to teacher-centeredness.

Flanders (1951) used the concept of "centeredness" in creating a laboratory situation in which two adults were trained to interact with student subjects. He found that teacher-centered behavior resulted in student hostility, withdrawal, apathy, and aggressiveness, while learner-centered behavior led to student behavior of problem orientation, decreased interpersonal anxiety, and integration (Flanders, 1951, p. 110).

2. Interaction Analysis

From the above research studies, Flanders developed his interaction analysis system.

The Flanders' system is an affective system which classifies teacher-pupil contacts into specifically defined behavioral acts. It is concerned only with verbal behavior, primarily because it can be observed with higher reliability than nonverbal behavior. The assumption is made that the verbal behavior of an individual is an adequate sample of his total behavior (Amidon and Flanders, 1967).

The Flanders' system classifies classroom interaction into ten categories. Seven of the categories are concerned with teacher talk and two with student talk, while the tenth category deals with periods of silence or confusion. The larger sections of teacher and student verbal behavior are subdivided in order to make the total pattern of teacher-pupil behavior more meaningful (Amidon and Flanders, 1967).

All teacher statements in this system are classified as either direct or indirect. "Direct" in the Flanders' system corresponds to the dominative, authoritarian and teacher-centered terms referred to previously, while "indirect" corresponds to the integrative, democratic, and learner-centered terms described earlier. This classification of teacher talk is concerned with the amount of freedom given to the student by the teacher.

Verbal interaction data can be collected live or on tape in the classroom setting. Every three seconds, a trained observer records the category number of the verbal behavior he has observed. When tabulated, the data can be entered in a 10 x 10 matrix, and the frequencies in the cells indicate the interaction pattern.

Flanders' Interaction Analysis System is "probably the best known and most widely used classrom observation system in existence" (Sandefur and Bressler, 1971).

A slight modification to the FIAS was made during the present study; the sex of the student as well as the interaction category was recorded when analyzing the data.

3. Interviews

Interviews were designed by the researcher in cooperation with two members of her supervisory committee and two specialists from the Edmonton Public School Board.

Procedure

1. Collection of Data in the Classroom

Since the data were gathered simultaneously in 24 classrooms spread across the city, it was necessary to collect the data by means of tape recordings rather than live recordings.

After the selection of the sample was made, the researcher personally visited each of the classrooms involved and talked with the teacher and his or her principal. The purpose of the research and the nature of the teacher's role in carrying out the study were discussed at this time. (In order to avoid bias, teachers and principals were told only that this study was an investigation of teacher-pupil verbal interaction. No mention of the variables of sex of teacher or sex of pupil was made.)

Teachers were requested to tape record four 15 minute lessons in the classroom (one a week for four consecutive weeks). Lesson content was not specified; the researcher asked only that it be in the "Social" area (as opposed to reading or mathematics) for purposes of consistency among the classes. The teacher was asked to teach new material to the pupils in such a way that pupil participation occurred during the lesson.

A secretary or teacher's aide was asked to be present during each taping session to operate the tape recorder and to ensure adequate sound reproduction. In addition, the secretary or teacher's aide was asked to record a "shorthand" version (the first few words of each new speaker) of each lesson, and to note the identity of the speaker (i.e., teacher, boy pupil, girl pupil). This procedure ensured adequate transcription of the tapes in the event of muffled or indecipherable sections of the recordings.

The researcher visited each of the classrooms after every taping in order to assist the teacher (or secretary or teacher's aide) with any technical problems and to collect the tape of that week.

All recordings took place during the 1977-78 school year.

2. Collection of Interview Data

After each teacher had completed his or her final tape, the researcher again visited each school to conduct the interview section of the study.

All interviews were conducted individually. The principal of the school, the teacher involved, and six of his/her pupils (three of each sex; randomly selected) were administered the appropriate interviews, as presented in Appendix A. Parents' interviews were conducted by the telephone. Each interview lasted approximately 10 to 15 minutes, although there were no upper or lower time limits established.

Following the completion of their interviews, the principals and the teachers were individually "debriefed" and the variables involved in the study were fully explained to them.

Analysis of the Data

1. Analysis of Classroom Data

All data collected in the classroom were analysed according to Flanders' categories for interaction analysis. Each 15-minute tape was analysed separately.

In order to ensure accurate coding, all tapes were first transcribed before any analysis was begun. A 15-minute tape, consisting of "beeps" placed three seconds apart, was made by the researcher. By playing this tape simultaneously with each 15-minute taped lesson, it was possible to identify three second intervals (the rate at which coding in Flanders' system occurs) on the written transcript.

The next step in the analysis of the data was to code each three second section with the appropriate number from one of Flanders' ten categories. The numerals were recorded in sequence in a column, and an identifying notation was used beside the numeral to indicate the sex of the speaker. The total tallies (approximately 300 tallies per 15-minute session) were then ready to be placed in a matrix.

Prior to matrix placement, the tallies are grouped into pairs, as indicated in Flanders' (1966) manual. Table 2 presents a sample of grouped tallies.

Table 2

Sample Grouped Tallies

10	8	5	9	5
)	)	)	)	)
5	8	5	9	5
(	(	(	(	(
5	2	5	3	4
)	)	)	)	)
10	5	4	3	8
(	(	(	(	(
8	5	9	5	10

The numerals, grouped in pairs (10-5, 5-5, 5-10, etc.) are ready to be placed in an interaction matrix. Table 3 is a sample of a matrix using these paired numerals.

Table 3

Sample Interaction Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1											0
2					1						1
3			1		1						2
4								1	1		2
5				11	1111111					1	10
6											0
7											0
9			1						11		3
10					1			1			2
Total	0	1	2	2	10	0	0	4	3	2	24

The first numeral in the pair specifies the row and the second numeral specifies the column, making it possible to identify the cell in which the tabulation of the pair should be made. The pair 10-5, then, is shown by a tally in the cell formed by Row 10 and Column 5. The second pair, 5-5, is shown by a tally in the cell formed by Row 5 and Column 5, and so forth.

Appendix B presents the transcripts and analysis of an actual tape obtained in the study.

In the present study, after all matrix analysis had been completed, the four tapes obtained from each teacher were combined to form one matrix. The 12 matrices of the female teachers and the 12 matrices of the male teachers were compared on the following variables:

1. Amount of teacher talk.
2. Amount of student talk.
3. Amount of time spent in each category.
4. Amount of silence or confusion.
5. Relative number of indirect and direct teacher statements (I/D Ratio).
6. The kind of emphasis given to motivation and control in the classroom (i/d Ratio).
7. Teaching patterns.

In addition, the relative amount of time and the kind of time spent in interaction with male as compared to female pupils were calculated for each teacher.

Chi square tests, t-tests, and analyses of variance were used to test for significant differences between male and female taught classrooms on the aforementioned variables.

Reliability Measure

Two fifteen-minute tapes from each of six teachers were analyzed by a second person trained in the Flanders' system in order to obtain a measure of inter-observer reliability. Scott's method of calculating reliability (as suggested by Flanders, 1966) was used in the present study. A Scott co-efficient of 0.82 was obtained, indicating adequate inter-observer reliability.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS OF FLANDERS' INTERACTION ANALYSIS

The results obtained from the portion of the study using Flanders' Interaction Analysis System are reported by restating the questions, presenting the relevant statistical findings, and drawing the appropriate conclusions. The level of significance used to test the questions was $p<.05$.

The first question was stated as follows:

Question 1 (a): Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught groups in percentages of teacher talk to the classroom as a unit ?

The teacher talk ratio is obtained by totalling the number of tallies in Columns 1 to 7 of the Flanders' matrix and then dividing this figure by the total number of tallies in the entire matrix. The resulting figure is the proportion of time that the teacher spends talking during the lesson.

Table 4 presents the "teacher talk" figures in percentage form for each of the 24 teachers involved. (As stated earlier, the four 15-minute tapes obtained from each teacher have been combined to form one matrix per teacher.)

A t-test was performed to examine the differences between the means of the female teachers and the male teachers. The results indicated no significant difference in the proportion of female teacher talk as compared to male teacher talk in the classroom setting.

Table 4

Comparison of Female and Male Teacher Talk Ratios

Female Teachers (N=12)	Male Teachers (N=12)
70.90%	74.00%
73.88%	70.48%
62.72%	70.55%
68.22%	70.30%
65.52%	69.69%
73.01%	68.91%
63.96%	80.07%
70.83%	83.60%
74.07%	69.36%
48.31%	67.77%
63.15%	64.21%
70.88%	64.60%
*Mean 67.12%	71.13%

* no significant difference between means

Question 1 (b): Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentage of student talk?

The student talk ratio is obtained by totalling the number of tallies in Columns 8 and 9 of the Flanders' matrix and then dividing the figure by the total number of tallies on the entire matrix. The resulting figure is the proportion of time that the students spend talking during the lesson.

Table 5 presents the "student talk" figures in percentage form for each of the 24 classrooms involved. A t-test was performed to examine the differences between the means of the female-taught classrooms and the male-taught classrooms. The results indicated no significant difference in the proportion of student talk in classes taught by females as compared to classes taught by males.

Question 2: Are there significant interaction effects between male and female teachers in terms of their verbal interaction with male and female pupils?

Because the numbers of boys and girls enrolled varied from classroom to classroom, it was necessary to analyse these data in terms of proportions of teacher-pupil interactions. Table 6 provides the mean number of interactions among male and female teachers per male and female pupil (for example, male teachers had an average of 6.64 interactions with each male pupil).

A two-way analysis of variance (Table 7) indicated no significant

Table 5

Comparison of Student Talk Ratios

Female-Taught Classrooms (N=12)	Male-Taught Classrooms (N=12)
21.45%	25.32%
30.36%	23.93%
29.53%	28.65%
33.16%	25.67%
28.22%	22.01%
33.56%	17.06%
26.10%	15.16%
21.88%	30.07%
41.22%	31.90%
34.72%	34.54%
27.37%	22.15%
* Mean 29.44%	25.85%

* no significant difference between means

Table 6

Amount of Verbal Interaction Per Pupil

	Male Teachers (N=12)	Female Teachers (N=12)
Male Pupil	6.64	7.90
Female Pupil	5.66	7.29

Table 7

Effects of Teacher Sex and Pupil Sex on Amount Of Verbal Interaction

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex of Teacher	7.52	1	7.52	1.11	0.30
Sex of Pupil	25.15	1	25.15	3.70	0.06
Sex of Teacher by Sex of Pupil	0.42	1	0.42	0.06	0.81
Error	299.07	44	6.80		

interaction effect between sex of teacher and sex of pupil. The difference in proportion of interactions with each male pupil as compared to each female pupil approached significance (p=.06); teachers of both sexes interacted more frequently with boys than with girls.

Question 3 (a): Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in I/D ratios ?

In Flanders' terminology, the I/D ratio is an index of indirect-direct teaching behavior. Indirect teaching behavior (teacher verbal statements that expand a student's freedom of action) consists of four of Flanders' observation categories: (1) accepting feelings; (2) praising or encouraging; (3) accepting ideas; and (4) asking questions. Direct teaching behavior (teacher verbal statements that restrict the freedom of the student) consists of three of Flanders' observation categories: (1) lecturing; (2) giving directions; and (3) criticizing or justifying authority. To obtain the I/D ratio, then, the total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1, 2, 3 and 4 of Flanders' categories is divided by the total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1 to 7 of the categories.

Table 8 presents the I/D ratios for each of the 24 teachers involved. A t-test was utilized to examine the difference between the means of the female teachers and those of the male teachers. The findings indicated no significant difference in the proportion of

Table 8

Ratio of Indirect/Direct Teaching Behavior

Female Teachers (N=12)	Male Teachers (N=12)
0.96	1.30
1.66	0.87
2.06	1.28
1.33	1.24
2.7	0.67
1.59	0.77
2.49	0.88
0.65	0.59
2.58	1.96
1.5	1.96
1.23	2.55
5.12	2.27
* Mean 1.99	1.36

* No significant difference between means

Indirect/Direct teaching behavior of female teachers as compared to male teachers (though teachers of both sexes tended to use more indirect than direct teaching behaviors).

Question 3 (b): Are there significant interaction effects between male and female teachers in I/D ratios when sex of the student is involved?

Table 9 presents the mean proportion of indirect verbal interactions per male pupil and per female pupil. A two-way analysis of variance performed on these data (Table 10) indicated no significant interaction between sex of teacher and sex of pupil in terms of the amount of indirect teaching behavior. However, there was a tendency (approaching significance) for male pupils to participate in more indirect interactions with teachers than female pupils.

Table 11 presents the mean proportion of direct verbal interactions per male pupil and per female pupil. Once again, a two-way analysis of variance (Table 12) indicated no significant interaction between sex of teacher and sex of pupil in terms of the amount of direct teaching behavior. However, although not hypothesized, male pupils participated in significantly more direct teacher-pupil interactions than did female pupils ($F = 5.65$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$).

Table 9

Amount of Indirect Verbal Interaction Per Pupil

	Male Teachers (N=12)	Female Teachers (N=12)
Male Pupil	5.67	6.85
Female Pupil	5.07	6.24

Table 10

Effects of Teacher Sex And Pupil Sex on Amount of Indirect Verbal Interaction

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex of Teacher	4.40	1	4.40	0.76	0.39
Sex of Pupil	16.67	1	16.67	2.88	0.10
Sex of Teacher by Sex of Pupil	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	1.0
Error	254.56	44	5.79		

Table 11

Amount of Direct Verbal Interaction Per Pupil

	Male Teachers (N=12)	Female Teachers (N=12)
Male Pupil	.74	1.14
Female Pupil	.59	1.05

Table 12

Effects of Teacher Sex and Pupil Sex on Amount Of Direct Verbal Interaction

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex of Teacher	0.17	1	0.17	0.43	0.51
Sex of Pupil	2.24	1	2.24	5.65	0.02 *
Sex of Teacher by Sex of Pupil	0.01	1	0.01	0.02	0.89
Error	17.43	44	0.40		

* Significant p<.05

Question 4: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in i/d ratios?

The i/d ratio is a sharpened index of indirect/direct teaching behavior, providing an index of motivational teaching behavior as compared to control teaching behavior. To obtain the i/d ratio, the total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1, 2 and 3 of Flanders' categories is divided by the total percentage of tallies in matrix columns 1, 2, 3, 6 and 7 of the categories.

Table 13 presents the motivational/control ratios (or i/d ratios) for each of the 24 teachers involved. A t-test was utilized to examine the difference between the means of the female teachers and those of the male teachers. The findings indicated no significant difference in the proportion of motivational/control teaching behavior of female teachers as compared to male teachers. Teachers of both sexes used considerably more motivational teaching behaviors than control teaching behaviors.

The chi square statistic was utilized to test for significant differences between male and female teachers in their use of each of Flanders' ten categories. Questions 5 to 14 inclusive are concerned with this variable, and the results are summarized in Table 14.

Question 5: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of acceptance and clarification of student feelings?

Table 13

Ratio of Motivational/Control Teaching Behavior
(Sharpened i/d Ratio)

Female Teachers (N=12)	Male Teachers (N=12)
3.25	4.76
5.44	2.59
33.25	3.49
3.54	7.3
44.4	2.04
22.09	3.71
11.73	2.42
9.62	5.17
22.10	20.86
4.46	66.0
2.86	8.94
61.0	7.24
* Mean 18.65	11.21

* No significant difference between means

Table 14

Use of Flanders' Categories

Category	Females (N=12)		Males (N=12)		Significance
	Frequency	% of Total	Frequency	% of Total	
1 (Question 5)	17	.08%	21	0.10%	not significant
2 (Question 6)	888	4.05%	1006	4.59%	significant ($\chi^2=7.35$, df=1, $p<.05$)
3 (Question 7)	949	4.23%	974	4.44%	not significant
4 (Question 8)	2490	11.35%	2237	10.20%	significant ($\chi^2=13.44$, df=1, $p<.05$)
5 (Question 9)	2605	11.87%	3291	15.0%	significant ($\chi^2=79.82$, df=1, $p<.05$)
6 (Question 10)	133	0.61%	228	1.04%	significant ($\chi^2=25.46$, df=1, $p<.05$)
7 (Question 11)	133	0.61%	219	1.0%	significant ($\chi^2=21.01$, df=1, $p<.05$)
8 (Question 12)	2343	10.68%	2358	10.75%	not significant
9 (Question 13)	785	3.58%	537	2.45%	significant ($\chi^2=46.5$, df=1, $p<.05$)
10 (Question 14)	357	1.63%	367	1.67%	not significant
	10,700		11,238		

Total Tallies: 21,938

Findings: Male and female teachers did not differ significantly from one another in their acceptance and clarification of student feelings (Flanders' Category 1).

Question 6: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of praise or encouragement by the teacher ?

Findings: Male teachers used a significantly higher percentage of praise and encouragement (Flanders' Category 2) in their lessons than female teachers ($\chi^2 = 7.35$, df = 1, $p<.05$) .

Question 7: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of acceptance or use of student ideas ?

Findings: Male and female teachers did not differ significantly in their responsiveness to student ideas (Flanders' Category 3).

Question 8: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of teacher questioning ?

Findings: Female teachers asked significantly more questions concerning content or procedure (Flanders' Category 4) than male teachers ($\chi^2 = 13.44$, df = 1, $p<.05$).

Question 9: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of female teacher lecturing?

Findings: Male teachers spent a significantly higher percentage of classroom time on lecturing (Flanders' Category 5: giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing own ideas; asking rhetorical questions) than female teachers ($\chi^2 = 79.82$, df = 1, $p<.05$).

Question 10: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of teacher direction giving?

Findings: Male teachers spent a significantly higher percentage of their time giving directions, orders or commands to students (Flanders' Category 6) than female teachers ($\chi^2 = 25.46$, df = 1, $p<.05$).

Question 11: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of teacher criticism or justification of authority?

Findings: Male teachers used criticism or a justification of authority (Flanders' Category 7) significantly more often than female teachers ($\chi^2 = 46.5$, df = 1, $p<.05$).

Question 12: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of student talk in response to the teacher ?

Findings: The percentage of student talk in response to the teacher (Flanders' Category 8) did not significantly differ in male-taught and female-taught classrooms.

Question 13: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of student-initiated talk?

Findings: Students in classes taught by female teachers initiated significantly more responses (Flanders' Category 9) than students in classes taught by male teachers ($\chi^2 = 46.5$, df = 1, $p<.05$).

Question 14: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in percentages of silence or confusion in the classroom?

Findings: No significant difference was found between male and female teachers in the percentages of silence and confusion in their classrooms (Flanders'Category 10).

Question 15: Is there a significant difference between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in terms of the teaching patterns employed ?

Four main teaching patterns or styles were used by the teachers in the 96 lessons examined in the present study. Table 15 briefly summarizes these patterns and indicates the use of each of these patterns by male and female teachers. Results of a chi square analysis

Table 15

Summary of Teaching Patterns

Pattern Numbers	Type Of Teaching Patterns	Female Teachers		Male Teachers	
		# of Lessons (Out of a Possible 48)	% of Lessons	# of Lessons (Out of a Possible 48)	% of Lessons
5-4-8	Lecture, narrow question, narrow response	29	60.42%	37	77.08%
4-8-2	Narrow question, narrow response, praise	6	12.5%	4	8.33%
4-8-4 (4/4-8/4) (4-8/7-4)	Narrow questions, narrow response, narrow question	4	8.33%	3	6.25%
9's	Various teaching patterns with broad pupil response	9	18.75%	4	8.33%

performed on each of the four patterns indicated no significant differences between male and female teachers in their overall teaching style.

The 5-4-8 pattern of Flanders' categories (consisting of a teaching pattern of lecture, narrow questioning and narrow response) was by far the most popular pattern used by teachers of both sexes. This pattern indicates that the teacher is very much in control of the teaching-learning sequence.

The 4-8-2 teaching pattern is also restrictive and teacher-dominated in that the teacher sets up the questioning. It consists of a narrow question, a narrow pupil response, and teacher praise.

Pattern 4-8-4 (or combinations 4/4-8-4; 4-8/8-4) involves narrow questioning, narrow pupil response, and more narrow questioning. This basic pattern is typical of review or drill type lessons.

These three teaching patterns comprise 81.25% of the female teachers' lessons and 91.66% of the male teachers' lessons. Flanders (1971) refers to such patterns as Level 1 teaching patterns:

> Level one patterns are concerned primarily with subject matter content and with learning activities which the teacher initiates, directs, and actively supervises. The dominant role of the teacher is characterized by high participation while the pupils are either passive or respond when asked. (Flanders, 1971, p. 280)

The final teaching pattern (9's") used by the teachers consists of various teaching patterns with broad pupil response. This pattern is a higher order, Level 2 pattern:

> Level two patterns appear at those moments when a teacher chooses to extend opportunities to pupils for more self-direction and self-expansion. For these patterns to be authentic, the invitation to participate is extended in a way that it can be accepted and acted upon. That is, judging

> whether these patterns are present or absent depends not only on what a teacher does, but also on how pupils respond. (Flanders, 1971, p. 283)

The use of such higher order patterns has been found in research to improve pupil attitude towards learning and to increase pupil achievement (Carlan, 1972).

CHAPTER VI

INTERVIEW FINDINGS

Introduction

The results of interviews conducted with teachers, principals, parents, and children concerning the issue of male primary teachers are contained in this chapter.

Most of the interview questions were open-ended, and subjects were encouraged to initiate and to express their opinions. The result was a wealth of information and ideas encompassing not only school issues but also many relevant developmental issues.

Where possible, the participants' responses have been categorized and summarized. However, in many cases, responses were too individual to be depersonalized and too valuable to be ignored. Herein lies the justification for a rather lengthy chapter containing a plethora of quotes.

Table 16 presents the interview sample.

TABLE 16

Interview Sample

	Possible N	Number Completed	
Teacher Interviews (conducted in person)	24	24	100%
Principal Interviews	22	22	100%
Pupil Interviews (conducted in person)	144	144	100%
Parent Interviews (conducted by telephone)	144	132	91.67%

Teacher Interview

A brief, in-person interview was conducted with each of the 12 male and 12 female teachers who were involved in the Flanders' portion of the research. Biographical information (age, education, and so forth) for these teachers was provided earlier (see "Methodology" chapter).

Teaching as a Profession

Teachers were initially asked why they chose teaching as a profession. Their responses were classified into six general categories (Table 17). Two-thirds of the female teachers responded to this question by saying that they liked children. The most common response offered by males (by one-third of them) was that teaching was a challenging profession.

Teachers were encouraged to elaborate on their responses to this question, and their comments will be briefly mentioned at this point.

Two of the 12 female teachers commented that their choice of teaching as a profession was based on earlier positive experiences with children (for example, camp counseling). Another female teacher attributed her choice to the fact that she was the eldest child in a large family and had looked after several younger children. Some of the teachers mentioned that teaching is a learning experience ("you're always learning more") and that it is a job "that's never boring". Another female teacher simply said "I thought I could be a good teacher".

Male teachers were somewhat more talkative than female teachers in response to this question. "Teaching was something I always wanted to do", commented one man. Another said that he had "high ideals of being

TABLE 17

REASONS FOR CHOOSING TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

	Female Teachers	Male Teachers	Total Sample
Liking for children	8 (66.7%)	2 (16.7%)	10 (41.7%)
Challenging profession	0 (0.0%)	4 (33.3%)	4 (16.7%)
Family influence or pressure	0 (0.0%)	2 (16.7%)	2 (8.3%)
Existence of job openings	0 (0.0%)	2 (16.7%)	2 (8.3%)
Combination of above reasons	2 (16.7%)	2 (16.7%)	4 (16.7%)
No particular reason	2 (16.7%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (8.3%)
	N = 12	N = 12	N=24

of service to the public". Teaching looked like a secure, respectable, interesting profession, according to two other men teachers. A fondness for children ("I thought kids were neat and fun to goof around with") and academic opportunity ("I could pursue my interest in reading research"; "teaching gives me an opportunity to continue my education") were other reasons. Finally, from one male, a very practical reason for becoming a teacher - "I had an Arts degree and no job, so I took a teaching degree".

Reasons for Teaching Young Children

The most popular reason offered for choosing to teach young children was simply a liking for them. Teachers of both sexes described young children as being open and honest, spontaneous and eager.

Several female teachers mentioned that younger children were easier to control in the classroom; they still "look up" to their teachers and are anxious to please. Other female teachers felt that it was possible to establish a closer relationship with younger children. Two women mentioned that they felt rather intimidated by older children, both mentally and physically. (In the words of one teacher: "I went into primary education because I'm short!").

Several of the male teachers felt that teaching at the primary level was a challenge ("that's where the teaching is"). One felt that it was easier to work with younger children in his specialty area (drama), while another felt it was a good age group for research in his area of interest (reading). Another male teacher mentioned that the primary route gave him flexibility for career advancement.

Sex Differences in Young Children

a) Preference for Teaching Boys or Girls

When asked whether they would prefer to teach boys or girls, 22 of the 24 teachers replied that they had no preference.

One female teacher and one male teacher indicated that they preferred teaching boys. The female teacher said that while girls are easier to teach, boys are more fun - "I like their personalities better; they're tougher, more ready to take the breaks". The male teacher felt that he could relate better to the boys than to the girls, although "there's not much difference at this age level".

b) Observed Differences Between Boys and Girls

Teachers were asked if they had observed any sex differences among children of primary school age. All of the teachers replied that they had noticed at least some differences.

Both male and female teachers described girls as being more mature than boys in terms of social behavior, motor coordination skills, and verbal skills. Girls were described as being easier to manage in the classroom setting, more organized in terms of work habits and organization of belongings, and generally more responsible. Their written work is usually neater than that of boys, according to the teachers, and their attention span is considerably longer.

Boys are described as being more physically aggressive and more activity-oriented than girls. Their games are rougher and more lively, and their need for frequent physical activity is evident. Socially, boys seem to require more peer interaction than girls.

Academically, teachers view boys' achievement levels as being lower than girls' - the boys are described as being poorer readers and exhibiting more learning disabilities.

Some teachers commented that the children's behavior is unisexual at times. They feel that sex roles are not as defined as they once were: "girls are not as girlish as they used to be", and "either sex will cry".

Generally, though, the teachers are cognizant of sex differences between young children, and the resulting classroom implications. For example, according to one teacher, low achievement in boys can usually be accounted for by immaturity, while low achievement in girls is generally related to a lack of ability. And another teacher comments: "Boys physically disturb the class, girls verbally disturb the class".

Reactions to the Male Primary Teacher

a) Impressions Offered by Female Teachers

The 12 female teachers were asked about their working experience with male primary teachers. Seven of the 12 teachers had either worked with or observed at least one male teaching at this level.

Reactions to the males were generally favorable. They were described in varying terms: "high-powered and energetic"; "verbally reinforcing"; "excellent with children". Several teachers commented that the men seemed to treat the children fairly and on an adult-like basis ("males talk straight to kids; females talk down - almost baby talk"). One female teacher mentioned that the male primary teachers with whom she had worked seemed to spend more time than the female teachers doing research and preparing classroom materials.

Some of the teachers felt that the male primary teachers they had seen were not as effective as females in terms of discipline. Another female teacher felt that the male she had observed taught above the students' ability level.

The reader should be reminded that the above data is based on observation of perhaps only one or two men.

b) Reactions Perceived by the Male Teachers

The 12 male teachers were asked about their experiences as a male teaching at the primary level.

Reactions to their choice of teaching level was generally positive. Several commented that both parents and children seemed happy at the idea of a male teacher. Administrators and colleagues were described as being supportive and encouraging.

Some teachers reported observing initial hesitancy among parents during their first days of teaching: "I was viewed as an oddball - fathers especially viewed me suspiciously at first"; "parents are especially watchful". The children also seemed to have some initial reservations about male teachers: "At first, the kids seem a bit afraid of you"; "Sometimes the kids were initially shy because of my beard".

Despite such initial reactions, the male primary teachers felt they were generally accepted and well liked.

More or Fewer Male Primary Teachers?

The sample of 24 teachers were asked if they would like to see an increase or a decrease in the number of men teaching at the primary level. As seen in Table 18, 17 of the 24 teachers (70.8%) felt that more males should be teaching at this level.

An approximately equal number of men and women indicated a preference for more male primary teachers. Their reasons for their responses to this interview item will be reported in the next two sections.

a) Responses of Female Teachers

The primary reason given by the females for wanting an increase in the number of male primary teachers was that the schools are too female-oriented. Male influence would be a "refreshing change", according to one teacher. "It would be nice to work with men", commented another.

Children, especially the boys, were thought to benefit by the presence of male teachers in the early grades: "Boys need someone to talk to; they try to talk to me about hockey"; "The men can cater to the boys' interests". The teachers seemed to feel that men would provide boys with the role models they are lacking due to familial separation or work-oriented fathers.

Some female teachers commented that the male teacher has novelty value in this traditionally feminine setting: "The kids are thrilled when any male enters the room". Others felt that seeing men in an occupation dominated by women would help in the fight against sex-role stereotyping.

A few of the female teachers expressed ambivalence about the issue of male primary teachers. "Could males handle young children?" asked one teacher. "I don't think there would be any negative effects of having more males" commented another. One female teacher felt that the issue of male teachers was not important

TABLE 18

SHOULD THERE BE MORE MALE PRIMARY TEACHERS?

	Female Teachers	Male Teachers	Total
Should be more male primary teachers	8 (66.7%)	9 (75.0%)	17 (70.8%)
Fine the way it is	1 (8.3%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (4.2%)
Sex of teacher is irrelevant	2 (16.7%)	3 (25.0%)	5 (20.8%)
Uncertain about the issue	1 (8.3%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (4.2%)
	N=12	N=12	N=24

until the upper elementary level.

b) Responses of Male Teachers

The male teachers felt that an increase in their numbers would reduce the feminine orientation of the elementary school. "Get rid of the old stigma of male principal, female teacher"; "Kids have a stereotype of female teachers"; "Someone once upon a time decided that women are better with young kids".

The men teachers interviewed felt that children should be exposed to teachers of both sexes. The male image is needed, especially by boys and by children from single parent families. The school staff would also benefit from a more equal balance of male and female teachers - "I feel isolated - I'd like to work with some male primary teachers", commented one male.

The male teachers were aware of the problems facing male primary teachers. One teacher noted the existence of public concern regarding the male teacher's sexual orientation. Another was aware of the lack of status accorded to males teaching lower grades. "With our socialization process, not all males could teach early grades", commented one male.

Principal Interview

The principals of the 22 schools in which the sample teachers are employed were interviewed in-person by the researcher. Five of the 22 principals are female.

Preference for Hiring Male or Female Teachers

The initial interview question asked the principals whether they would employ a male or female primary teacher - assuming that both were equally qualified and equally suitable for the position.

Of the 15 principals who indicated they had a preference, ten stated that they would hire a male teacher. The sex of the principals did not significantly affect their response to this question (Table 19).

The reasons behind the principals' preferences will be discussed in a later section.

Differences Between Male and Female Teachers

Principals were asked if they had observed any differences in the teaching styles of male and female teachers. Thirteen of the 22 principals (59.1%) replied affirmatively while four (18.2%) replied negatively. The remaining five principals felt that they could not answer this question because too many variables were involved ("no two teachers are alike; you can't generalize").

The major differences mentioned by the principals were in the areas of personality, teacher-pupil interaction, and classroom techniques.

1. Female Teachers

The principals described female teachers as warm, motherly, resilient and patient. They were also said to be more volatile than

Table 19

Preference for Hiring Male or Female Teacher

	Female Principals	Male Principals	Total
Would hire female teacher	1 (20.0%)	4 (23.5%)	5 (22.7%)
Would hire male teacher	3 (60.0%)	7 (41.2%)	10 (45.5%)
No preference	0 (0.0%)	3 (17.6%)	3 (13.6%)
Ambiguous response	1 (20.0%)	3 (17.6%)	4 (18.2%)
	N = 5	N = 17	N = 22

male teachers and more willing to accept rudeness from the children. One principal commented that children place female teachers in the "caretaker's role" ("she's viewed by kids as a nagging, bitching, controlling person"). Conversely, another principal mentioned that the children are apt to become closer to a female teacher than to a male teacher. Finally, one principal felt that women teachers are more concerned than men teachers with the planning and teaching of specific skills to the children.

2. Male Teachers

Male teachers were viewed by the principal as being more open and less structured than female teachers. They were said to treat the children as if they were "little adults" and "to let the children get away with less".

Several principals felt that men have an advantage over women in the area of discipline: "Students behave better for a man"; "Just their size and their loud voices make discipline easier". Men were seen as having firmer classroom control ("they're not wishy-washy like women").

Rapport between teacher and pupil was described as being stronger if the teacher was male. The uniqueness of the male primary teacher was mentioned several times as an attracting variable for the children.

To summarize, the principals seemed to view the female teachers as sensitive, emotional beings who tended to focus on affective matters. The males were described as being more objective and level-headed, focussing more on the cognitive side. Males generally are seen as more capable and independent: "It is traditional that the male handle all problems in the classroom - the female is not expected to; she can go to the principal for help".

More or Fewer Males at the Primary Level?

Eighteen of the 22 principals (81.8%) felt that there should be an increase in the number of males teaching at the primary level. Three others felt that males should be teaching only at Grade 3 and above, and one principal felt that the sex of the teacher did not matter. The major reasons for their responses are listed in Table 20.

The principals generally seemed to feel that male primary teachers can contribute a great deal to the school. Staff relations would be improved if there was a more even ratio of male to female teachers in all grades, according to several principals. Male teachers are viewed as being more athetically inclined and activity-oriented; hence an increase in numbers of males might expand extra-curricular activities.

Several principals felt that primary teaching experience should be a prerequisite for administrators (most of whom are male). Young children have special needs, and familiarity with those needs can best be obtained through first-hand experience.

Although the majority of the principals would hire a male to teach at the primary level, they tended to add cautionary comments. Some feel that finding a qualified male teacher is so much more difficult than finding a qualified female teacher that "it just isn't worth it". Many of the males who express an interest in working with young children have been trained to teach at higher levels, and have difficulty transferring their skills. One principal felt that primary males "are too

Table 20

Principals' Reasons for Hiring More Male Primary Teachers

	Mentioned By: (Possible N=22)
To balance out sex ratio in schools	11 (50.0%)
To expose children to teachers of both sexes	10 (45.5%)
To compensate for single parent families	12 (54.5%)
To provide male role model	9 (40.9%)
To add to sports, extra-curricular activities	4 (18.2%)

much of a phenomenon - they have to be built more naturally into the system". Another principal said he still had doubts about hiring male teachers although he is aware of the issue - "there's a need, but I may not hire them".

In summary, the principals felt that there was a definite need for more male primary teachers. However, some hesitancy is apparent among them, and it was stressed that the teacher should not be hired "just because he's a male".

Pupil Interview

A total of 144 children (72 boys and 72 girls) participated in this portion of the study. Six children (three of each sex) from each of the 24 classrooms involved in the research were randomly chosen by the experimenter and asked to complete a brief oral interview.

Because of the young ages of the children involved, the interview format was straightforward and concise, requiring only simple responses from the children yet encouraging more elaborate ones (see Appendix A).

1. Preference for Male or Female Teacher

The initial interview question required the children to decide whether they would like to have a male or a female teacher the following school year (if they were allowed to choose). They were also encouraged to give reasons for this preference.

Eighty-two of the 144 children, or 56.9% indicated that they would prefer to have a female teacher. Sixty-one of the children (42.4%) indicated a preference for a male teacher, and one child (0.7%) reported no preference as to teacher sex (Table 21).

Does the sex of the pupil affect his or her preference for a male or female teacher? The findings suggest that children prefer teachers of their own sex: 70.8% of the girls and only 43.1% of the boys preferred to have a female teacher, while 56.9% of the boys and only 27.8% of the girls preferred a male teacher. These results are significant at the .01 level (Chi square = 13.10756, 2 degrees of freedom, $p < .01$). Table 22 summarizes these results.

The children's responses to the question of teacher preference

Table 21

Pupil Preference For Female or Male Teacher

N=144	Frequency	Percentage
Prefer female teacher	82	56.9%
Prefer male teacher	61	42.4%
No preference	1	0.7%
	144	100.0%

Table 22

Pupil Sex and Preference For Female or Male Teacher

	Girls (N=72)		Boys (N=72)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Prefer female teacher	51	70.8	31	43.1
Prefer male teacher	20	27.8	41	56.9
No preference	1	1.4	0	0.0

(Chi Square = 13.10756, 2 df, $p < .01$)

were also analysed to see if the sex of their present teacher affected their choice. If the children presently had a female teacher, they tended to prefer to continue having a female teacher the next year. Only 27.8% wanted to switch to a male teacher. On the other hand, children presently having a male teacher were more willing to have a teacher of the opposite sex: 41.7% of these children indicated a preference for a female teacher the following year, while 56.9% wanted to continue with a male teacher. These findings are significant at the .01 level (Chi square = 14.13184, 2 degrees of freedom, $p < .01$), and are summarized in Table 23.

The children were asked their reasons for preferring a male or a female teacher the following year. Their comments were varied and often imaginative, and will be reported briefly at this time. (It should be kept in mind that the children in the female-taught classrooms have never had a male teacher, while the children in male-taught classrooms, excluding the kindergarten, had previously been exposed to female teachers.)

The responses from those children enrolled in a female-taught class and those in a male-taught class were very similar. The only difference was that there was a fear of the unknown; several children said that they would prefer to have a female teacher because they aren't "used to" men and they "don't know what a man would be like". Some children from female-taught classrooms were more adventurous and commented that it would be "nice to have a man teacher, for a change".

A few children indicated reasons for preferring teachers of their own sex. One little boy remarked "I'm a boy and I like men

Table 23

Sex of Present Teacher And Preference for Female or Male Teacher

	Presently Has Female Teacher		Presently Has Male Teacher	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Prefer female teacher	52	72.7	30	41.7
Prefer male teacher	20	27.8	41	56.9
No preference	0	0.0	1	1.4

(Chi Square = 14.13194, 2 df, $p < .01$)

most". A little girl felt that female teachers would know how to handle girls' problems better than male teachers.

Children of both sexes used similar adjectives to describe their preferences for male and female teachers; for example, some children felt that "lady teachers are nicer and better" while others described men teachers using the same terminology.

However, some trends did emerge - men teachers were frequently described (by both boys and girls) as "being more fun than ladies" and as "getting mad more than ladies".

2. Specific Interview Responses

The children's responses to the interview questions will be briefly summarized at this point. Most questions required only a one- or two-word reply. Since no significant differences were found between boys and girls (or between children in female-taught and male-taught classrooms) on these questions, these findings will be reported for the entire sample.

Several of the questions investigated the pupils' perceptions of temperament differences between male and female teachers. An examination of the pupils' responses to questions concerning such differences indicated that both boys and girls felt that female teachers are nicer, friendlier, and laugh and smile more. The children also felt that female teachers "make school more fun", and "make it easier to learn new things".

Men teachers were viewed as better disciplinarians than women teachers. They were also perceived as getting angry considerably more often.

Table 24 summarizes the responses to the specific questions of the interview.

3. Spontaneous Comments

During the interview, the children were encouraged to elaborate upon their responses and to initiate new areas of discussion related to differences between male and female teachers.

The children's comments can be classified into four general areas: differences in physical appearance, differences in personality, differences in disciplinary techniques, and differences in teaching techniques.

a) Differences in Physical Appearance:

Most of the children who commented upon physical differences between male and female teachers referred to wearing apparel and hairstyles. "Ladies wear dresses and men don't", "men have beards", "ladies have longer hair", and so forth, were typical comments. The general consensus was that lady teachers are smaller and prettier than men teachers.

Several children also commented upon the voice differences between men and women ("a lady teacher's voice is softer than a man teacher's). One child's rather accurate observation of the differences between male and female teachers was that "lady teachers get pregnant and men teachers don't"!

b) Differences in Personality:

The children generally felt that there were distinct personality differences between female and male teachers. Female

Table 24

Pupils' Responses to Specific Interview Questions
(N=144)

Question	Pupil Response A Female Teacher	 A Male Teacher	 No Difference
Who would be nicer?	98 (68.1%)	43 (29.9%)	3 (2.1%)
Who would be friendlier?	93 (64.6%)	49 (34.0%)	2 (1.4%)
Who would laugh and smile more?	98 (68.1%)	46 (31.9%)	0 (0.0%)
Who would get angry more?	31 (21.5%)	113 (78.5%)	0 (0.0%)
Who would make school more fun?	91 (63.2%)	52 (36.1%)	1 (0.7%)
Who would make it easier to learn new things?	94 (65.3%)	48 (33.3%)	2 (1.4%)
Who would keep better order in the classroom?	43 (29.9%)	100 (69.4%)	1 (0.7%)

teachers were characterized as being kinder and more gentle, yet rather serious. Male teachers were most often described as friendly and playful although displaying occasional tendencies towards "grouchiness" and anger. ("Men get mad faster, women take it calm", in the words of one child.) Generally male teachers were said to have a better sense of humor ("a man laughs when he hears funny things") and to be smarter than female teachers ("men teachers are smarter; they know more than lady teachers").

Several children commented upon the inner workings of female and male teachers. According to one child, "the lady's nerves are worse than the man's", while another child said that "the man teacher looks happy outside but he's angry inside, while the lady is happy both inside and outside".

c) Differences in Disciplinary Techniques:

According to the pupils, female and male teachers employ highly similar disciplinary techniques; teachers of both sexes shout, yell, or scream; pound on the desk; ask pupils to be quiet or to put their heads down; send pupils to the office; give them detentions; clap their hands or blow whistles to get their attention; and so forth.

However, the children perceive male teachers as being louder, stricter, and more physical than female teachers in their use of the above techniques. In the words of one child, "the lady teacher yells and the man teacher screams, and screaming is louder than yelling". According to another child, "men teachers can give you the strap, but lady teachers don't because they don't wear belts". With some exceptions (some children felt that male teachers are more tolerant of misbehavior than female teachers), male teachers are viewed as being sterner disciplinarians than female teachers. Several pupils felt the strong discipline of male teachers was helpful; a sample comment was "men help you grow up better because they're more strict".

d) Differences in Teaching Techniques:

Spontaneous comments from pupils indicate that they have noticed differences in the classroom style of female and male teachers. The pupils commented that the female and male teachers talked differently and taught differently.

Male teachers were generally viewed as being more helpful in the learning process as well as being more demanding in terms of amount and quality of assigned work. Female teachers were perceived as being more relaxed in the classroom, teaching at a slower pace, and requiring less work.

Differences in subject area expertise were also identified by the pupils. Female teachers were described as being better at art and weaker in science and gym than male teachers. According to some pupils, "men know more than ladies", so lady teachers should "do easier things because they sometimes get mixed up with the hard stuff".

Female teachers were said to "put more stuff up on the walls" and to generally make the room look different than male teachers. Male teachers were thought to plan more interesting and activity-oriented field trips than female teachers.

Parent Interview

The parents of the 144 children who participated in the "Pupil Interview" were asked to engage in a brief open-ended telephone interview with the researcher. One hundred and thirty-two parents were successfully contacted (69 parents of girls and 63 parents of boys).

Because the mother is generally the most easily reached person, it was decided to interview her whenever possible. If she was difficult to contact, the researcher interviewed the father. One hundred and eighteen mothers (89.4% of the sample) and 13 fathers (9.8% of the sample) responded to the interview items. One couple jointly participated in the interview.

Twenty-five (18.9%) of the interview subjects were single parents, all of them female. Almost one-half of the total sample (47.7%) consisted of working mothers.

1. Parental Satisfaction with Present Teacher

Parents were initially asked whether they felt that their child's teacher had been helpful in his/her progress this year. One hundred and thirteen of the 132 parents (85.6%) responded affirmatively, while only seven (5.3%) responded negatively. Twelve parents (9.1%) felt they could not satisfactorily respond to this question.

Parents were prompted to be more specific and to elaborate upon the ways in which the teacher had been helpful. Was he/she helpful in terms of their child's academic progress, or in terms of his social or emotional development, or in terms of a combination of these? As can be seen in Table 25, 50% of the parents mentioned

TABLE 25

PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER HELPFULNESS

Teacher has been helpful in terms of:	Mentioned	Not Mentioned
a) child's academic progress	66 (50.0%)	66 (50.0%)
b) child's social development	54 (40.9%)	78 (59.1%)
c) child's emotional development	50 (37.9%)	82 (62.1%)

N = 132

that the teacher had been helpful academically, 40.9% felt they had encouraged their child's social development, and 37.9% felt they had promoted their child's emotional development. (Several parents who felt unable to respond to the more general question were able to reapond to the more specific ones; hence the increase in total number of responses for the later questions).

Parents were then asked whether they felt that the sex of their child's teacher had in any way affected their child's academic or personal growth. Approximately 30% of the parents felt that the sex of the teacher had made a difference, while 41.7% felt that sex had not been a factor. The remaining 28% (37 parents) felt they could not answer this question. (The usual reason given was that so many other variables are accountable for a child's progress). Table 27 presents these findings.

Parents were encouraged to elaborate upon the ways in which they felt the teacher had been helpful. The parents' ideas will be summarized according to the sex of the teacher.

a) Female Teachers

Generally, parents appeared very pleased about their children's teachers. Superlative adjectives were used in many cases - "she's fantastic", "she's absolutely wonderful", "she's excellent". Several parents commented upon the teachers' abilities to motivate their children ("she keeps the kids interested", "she works him to his limits"). Good rapport with the children was mentioned frequently ("she treats the kids fairly", "she's very considerate of her students", "my boy loves her"). As well, the teachers' skills in communicating

TABLE 26

TEACHER SEX AND EFFECT ON CHILD'S PROGRESS

	Number of Parents
Teacher sex was a factor in my child's progress	40 (30.3%)
Teacher sex was not a factor in my child's progress	55 (41.7%)
Cannot say whether sex was a factor or not	35 (26.5%)
No response	2 (1.5%)

N = 132

with the parents were stressed ("she's easy to talk to", "she's concerned").

Special interest taken by the teachers was also noted. Two parents mentioned that their children's teachers helped them learn English; others mentioned that the teachers "went out of their way" to help their children learn social skills or to develop their feelings of self-confidence.

The parents' comments concerning the 12 female teachers were almost totally favorable; the only negative comment (by one parent) was that a teacher was not strict enough in the classroom setting.

b) Male Teachers

Several parents described their children's male teachers in terms of superlatives as well: "he's excellent"; "he's done one hell of a job"; "there's no better teacher than Mr. ...". The ability of some of the teachers to combine discipline with fun impressed many parents ("he has a relaxed class atmosphere, but still very disciplined"). Strictness was viewed positively - "good discipline and understanding", "he's very strict and that has really helped my daughter", "he's firm and consistent".

Several parents commented that the male teachers treated the children on an adult-like basis: "he doesn't baby or coddle him"; "he lets her think on her own". Other adjectives used by parents to describe male teachers were "caring", "honest", "open-minded", and "motivating".

As in the case of the female teachers, the male teachers received highly positive parent evaluations. Poor parental communication on the part of one teacher was the only negative comment proferred by a parent.

2. Preference for Male or Female Teacher for Own Child

Parents were asked if they would prefer to have a male teacher or a female teacher teaching their own child. Three quarters (75.87%) of the parents responded that they had no preference as to the sex of their child's teacher; 13.6% preferred a male teacher, and 9.1% preferred a female teacher.

The sex of their child did not significantly affect the parents' preferences (Table 27), nor did single parent status (Table 28). However, the sex of the child's present teacher was a significant factor: of those who expressed a sex preference, parents of children in male-taught classes were more emphatic in choosing to continue with a male teacher as compared to parents of female-taught children choosing to continue with a female (Table 29).

The parents' reasons for preferring male or female primary teachers will be discussed in a later section.

3. More or Fewer Male Primary Teachers in General

Parents were asked whether they would like to see more or fewer male teachers at the primary grade level. Over one-half of the parents (56.8%) responded in favor of more males, while another one-quarter of the parents (26.5%) felt that the sex of the teacher made no difference in terms of his or her suitability. About 10% of the parents felt that males should not be teaching at the primary level. Table 30 summarizes these results.

TABLE 27

SEX OF CHILD AND PARENTS' PREFERENCE FOR FEMALE OR MALE TEACHER

Parents' Preference N=132	Sex of Child	
	Female	Male
Prefer female teacher	8 (11.6%)	4 (6.3%)
Prefer male teacher	7 (10.1%)	11 (17.5%)
No preference	53 (76.8%)	47 (74.6%)
No response	1 (1.4%)	1 (1.6%)
	N = 69	N = 63

TABLE 28

SINGLE PARENT STATUS AND PREFERENCE FOR FEMALE OR MALE TEACHER

Parents' Preference	Single Parent Family	Two-Parent Family
Prefer female teacher	1 (4.0%)	11 (10.3%)
Prefer male teacher	5 (20.0%)	13 (12.1%)
No preference	19 (76.0%)	81 (75.7%)
No response	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.9%)
	N = 25	N = 107

TABLE 29

SEX OF CHILD'S TEACHER AND PARENTS' PREFERENCE FOR FEMALE OR MALE TEACHER

Parents' Preference N=132	Sex of Child's Present Teacher	
	Female	Male
Prefer female teacher	11 (17.5%)	1 (1.4%)
Prefer male teacher	6 (9.5%)	12 (17.4%)
No preference	44 (69.8%)	56 (81.2%)
No response	2 (3.2%)	0 (0.0%)
	N = 63	N = 69

(Chi square 13.52855, 3 df, p<.01)

TABLE 30

SHOULD THERE BE MORE MALE PRIMARY TEACHERS?

	Mentioned By:
There should be more males	75 (56.8%)
There should be fewer males	6 (4.5%)
There should be no males until upper elementary school	8 (6.1%)
It's fine the way it is	7 (5.3%)
Sex of the teacher makes no difference	35 (26.5%)
No response	1 (0.8%)
	N = 132

The parents were asked to give reasons for their responses to the issue of male primary teachers. The most common reasons given for desiring more male teachers at this level are summarized in Table 31, and will be elaborated upon in the next few paragraphs.

a) Reasons for Wanting More Male Primary Teachers

The over-feminization of the school seemed to offend many parents. They felt that children should be exposed to both male and female personalities and viewpoints; "it would add flavor to school", according to one parent. Several parents commented that it was particularly hard on boys to be surrounded by female teachers - boys need a male influence, a male role model. A single parent (female) commented: "My kids are starved for male companionship". Another simply said: "Kids need men".

A frequent comment was that male teachers have more control over the students; children do not take advantage of them in the same way as they would a female. Several parents felt that male teachers commanded more attention and received more respect from their students. "Kids look up to men, with so many females in their environment all of the time".

Subject area expertise and classroom performance were also mentioned as reasons for wanting more male primary teachers. Some parents felt that men were better than women in teaching

TABLE 31

PARENTS' REASONS FOR PREFERRING MORE MALE TEACHERS

	Mentioned By:
To balance out sex ratio in schools	20 (15.2%)
To expose children to teachers of both sexes	31 (23.5%)
To give equal opportunity to boys	19 (14.4%)
To provide male role model	29 (22.0%)
To compensate for single parent families	20 (15.2%)
For disciplinary reasons	26 (19.7%)

Possible N = 132

the sciences, and that men initiated more activities both inside and outside the classroom.

The Women's Liberation movement seems to have affected parental attitudes towards the issue of male primary teachers. Some mothers commented that they would like their children to lose the stereotype of teachers as being female ("I'd like to see more male teachers for the same reason I'd like to see more female doctors and female truck drivers). Another mother felt that the teaching profession would gain additional respect if more males entered into it; the children would then see teaching as a possible career for both sexes.

Finally, some parents felt that male teachers are more stable professionally than female teachers; "they regard teaching as a career rather than as a stop-gap between school and marriage or babies". One parent noted that encouraging males to teach at the primary level would provide them with more employment opportunities. And according to one father, males should do all the teaching, since "women should be at home".

b) Reasons for Opposition to Male Primary Teachers:

It will be recalled that approximately 10% of the parents expressed the feeling that males should not be teaching at the primary level.

The most common reason for this view given by the parents was that children need females at this early age. About 13% of the entire sample indicated at some point during the interview that perhaps a continuation of the mother image was needed at school ("younger children need a woman's touch").

Several parents felt that female teachers are more tolerant of young children and would relate better emotionally to them. Some parents commented that males have no real understanding of young children and would be too stern and impatient with them.

Finally, a few parents felt that it was "more natural" to have a female working with young children; one parent even expressed the fear that some male teachers might be child molesters!

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

SECTION I: Summary

1. Summary of Results Obtained from the Analysis of Verbal Interaction:

Fifteen questions (originally presented in Chapter Three) were created to examine the taped verbal interaction of 24 hours of classroom lessons. The questions were concerned with the differences between male and female teachers on several variables. Significant differences were found on 9 of the 15 questions.

The results can be summarized briefly:

Questions 1 (a) and 1 (b) were concerned with the percentages of teacher talk and student talk in the classroom setting. No significant differences between male-taught and female-taught classrooms were found on these variables. In addition, the variables of teacher sex and pupil sex did not significantly interact to affect classroom verbal interaction (Question 2).

Male and female teachers did not differ significantly in their use of indirect teaching behavior as compared to direct teaching behavior (I/D ratio). Teacher sex and pupil sex did not interact to affect this ratio (Questions 3 (a) and 3 (b)). In addition, no significant differences were observed between males and females in their use of the sharpened i/d ratio, which examines motivational teaching behavior as compared to control teaching behavior (Question 4).

Ten questions were concerned with the use of Flanders' individual categories in the present study. No significant differences were found between male-taught and female-taught classrooms in the teachers' acceptance and clarification of student feeling (Flanders' Category 1, Question 5); in the teachers' acceptance and use of student ideas (Category 3, Question 7); in the percentage of student talk in response to the teachers (Category 8; Question 12); and in the percentage of silence and confusion in the classrooms (Category 10, Question 14).

Finally, no significant differences between male and female teachers in terms of their teaching patterns was observed (Question 15). An interesting unexpected finding was the extensive use of low-level teaching patterns by the participating teachers of both sexes.

Significant male teacher - female teacher differences were found on 6 of Flanders' categories. These can be summarized as follows:

Male teachers were found to use a significantly higher percentage of praise and encouragement (Flanders' Category 2, Question 6) in their classrooms than female teachers. As well, they were more generous in their use of criticism or justification of authority than female teachers (Category 7, Question 11).

Male teachers spent a significantly greater proportion of time than female teachers lecturing in the classroom (Category 5, Question 9). They also spent proportionately more time than the females issuing directions, commands or orders to the pupils (Category 6, Question 10).

Female teachers asked the pupils significantly more questions concerning content or procedure than male teachers (Category 4, Question 8). Pupils in the classes taught by females initiated a proportionately greater number of verbal interactions than pupils in the classes taught by males (Category 9, Question 13).

The analysis of the Flanders' data obtained in the study suggests that very few differences exist between male and female primary teachers in terms of overall classroom interaction. Any differences that were found between the sexes were in usage of specific categories: male teachers used more praise and criticism in their classrooms, as well as spending more time lecturing and giving directions, while female teachers asked more questions and had a higher proportion of student-initiated talk in their classrooms.

The writer found no comparable studies with which to adequately compare the present findings. The analysis of verbal interaction has not been previously used in the comparison of male and female teachers at the primary level.

The only study found in the literature which compared male and female primary teachers in terms of process variables was conducted by Lee and Wolensky (1973). Their findings differed from those obtained in the present study: they found that both male teachers and female teachers favored members of their own sex. (It will be recalled that no significant interactions between teacher sex and pupil sex were obtained in the present study). The results of the Lee and Wolensky study are questionable, however, because of poor research design: the male teachers in the study were paired with a female team teacher, and then compared to a second pair consisting of two females.

The findings of studies conducted in the middle and upper elementary grades generally agree with those obtained in the present study. Spaulding (1965) and Tolbert (1968) both found essentially no differences in the teaching styles of male and female teachers. Jackson and Lahaderne (1967) and Good, Sikes, and Brophy (1973) found that teachers of both sexes had more contacts with boys than with girls. The latter study also concurred with the present finding that male teachers are more critical of pupils in the classroom setting than female teachers.

Nygaard (1975) used the Flanders' system to investigate differences between male and female teachers from the upper elementary grades to college level. Although his sample is not directly comparable to that used in the present study, his findings are similar on two of Flanders' categories. As in the present study, he found that male teachers lecture more than female teachers, while females have a higher percentage of student initiated talk in their classrooms.

The lack of well-controlled studies comparing male and female teachers in the early grades is apparent. Until such studies are conducted, the issue of differences in teaching style and pupil interaction between the sexes cannot be conclusively decided.

2. Summary of Results Obtained From Interviews

The results of the interviews conducted with teachers, principals, parents and children concerning the issue of male primary teachers will be summarized briefly in this section. Where appropriate, a comparison of the present findings with those of earlier research studies will be incorporated.

Teacher Interviews:

The responses of the 12 male teachers and 12 female teachers to the interview questions indicated highly similar orientations to the profession.

Teachers of both sexes chose to teach at the primary level because of their fondness for young children. Both males and females described primary school children as being honest, spontaneous, and eager to learn.

Twenty-two of the 24 teachers expressed no preference for teaching boys or girls. All of the teachers had noticed some sex differences in young children; girls were described as being more mature in terms of social behavior, motor coordination, and verbal ability, while boys were viewed as being more aggressive and less achievement oriented.

Although their experiences in working with male primary teachers were limited, the females expressed favorable reactions to their teaching abilities. They felt that the men generally treated the children fairly, and on an adult-like basis. However, there was concern among some females about the males' effectiveness in the area of discipline.

The male teachers felt that reaction to their choice of teaching level was generally favorable. Other teachers and administrators were described as supportive. Although some of the males experienced initial apprehension by parents and children, they felt that their acceptance was not a problem. However, the men were aware of the types of issues (for example, questions concerning sexual orientation, lack of professional status) that are potential problems for males teaching in the early grades.

Approximately 70% of the teachers felt that there should be more male teachers at the primary level. Both male and female teachers felt that the schools were too female-oriented and too unbalanced in terms of male-female ratio. The teachers frequently commented that the children (especially the boys) would likely benefit from the provision of a male role model at the primary level.

Principal Interview:

Approximately 45% of the principals interviewed stated that they would employ a male primary teacher in preference to a female (assuming equal qualifications). Only 23% stated a clear preference for a female teacher. The sex of the principal did not significantly affect their responses to the question of hiring preference.

Sixty percent of the principals felt that differences in teaching style existed between male and female primary teachers. (It should be noted that some of the principals had very limited experience with male primary teachers.) Female primary teachers were described as warm and resilient, but more volatile than males. Males were said to be more open and less structured than females, and to treat children on a more adult-like basis. Discipline in male-taught classrooms was thought to be superior to that in female-taught classrooms.

The majority of the principals interviewed saw a need for more male primary teachers. They felt that their presence would improve staff relations, expand extra-curricular activities, and provide a necessary role model for boys (particularly for those from single parent families).

Cautionary comments were volunteered by several principals. They discussed the difficulties inherent in finding a suitably trained male to teach at the primary level, and stressed that the male primary teacher should not be hired "just because he's a male".

Pupil Interview:

When asked to state their preference as to the sex of their teacher the following year, slightly over one-half of the children preferred a female. The children tended to prefer teachers of their own sex. Also, if they presently had a female teacher, they were more likely to want to stay with a female as compared to children in male classes wanting to stay with a male.

The responses of children from male-taught and female-taught classes were highly similar, even though the children from female-taught classes had little or no exposure to male teachers. As well, the responses of boys and girls to the interview items were not significantly different.

Children of both sexes were aware of several differences between male and female teachers. They mentioned differences in physical appearance, in personality, in discipline, and in teaching style. Female teachers were described as kind, gentle, and relaxed. Males were seen as playful and friendly, and demanding in terms of pupil output. Disciplinary techniques were similar, but males were viewed as being more stern as well as louder. Female teachers were said to be better at art and more interested in classroom decor, and males to be superior at science and physical education, and to organize better field trips. Finally, male teachers were thought by several children of both sexes to be smarter than female teachers.

Parent Interview:

The majority of the parents interviewed felt that their child's teacher had been helpful in terms of their child's academic, social, and/or emotional development. Approximately one-third of the parents felt that the sex of the teacher had in some way affected their child's progress. Whether their child was male or female did not significantly affect their responses to the above questions.

Generally, parents were very pleased with the performance of teachers of both sexes. The male teacher's ability to combine strictness with fun, as well as his tendency to approach children on an adult-like basis, were frequently mentioned.

Three-quarters of the parents indicated no preference as to the sex of their child's teacher the following year. Neither the sex of their child nor single parent status significantly affected their responses to this item. However, the sex of their child's teacher was a significant factor; parents of children presently enrolled in a class taught by a male tended to want their child to continue with a male teacher.

Slightly over one-half of the parents felt that there should be an increase in the number of males teaching at the primary level. Another one-quarter felt that the sex of the teacher was not a significant factor. Those parents who indicated that males should not be teaching at this level generally expressed the idea that young children need the continuation of the mother image.

Reasons given by parents for wanting more male primary teachers included: (1) children need exposure to the viewpoints of both sexes; (2) children should learn that either sex can undertake any profession; (3) children need a male role model; (4) male teachers are more effective disciplinarians; and (5) males have different areas of subject expertise from females.

Results obtained from the interviews with primary teachers, principals, children, and parents generally seem to support those obtained in the few earlier interview studies which have been conducted.

Levine (1972) reports that the male teachers in his sample were well-received by both children and parents. Students seemed to relate to them better than to female teachers, and parents were happy that their children had a male model. Kendall (1972), a school administrator, also reports positive findings concerning the acceptance of male primary teachers. Milgram and Sciarra (1974) comment upon the isolation and feelings of loneliness experienced by male teachers of young children. Similar feelings were expressed by some of the men in the present study.

Milgram and Sciarra (1974), for example, feel that acceptance of male teachers of young children is only "intellectual acceptance" (p. 245) and is often devoid of sincerity, understanding, and friendliness. Siefert (1973) also feels that primary male teachers have difficulty gaining acceptance in the school system. As contrasted to the results of other studies, the male teachers in the present study experienced very little discrimination because of their sex.

SECTION II: Conclusions

What conclusions can be gathered from the results of the present study?

The major conclusion that is suggested is that the male primary teacher is essentially not very different from the female primary teacher in terms of classroom verbal interaction.

Male and female teachers interacted with the children in a very similar manner. Neither sex interacted differentially with male and female pupils; both male and female teachers tended, however, to pay more attention to male pupils. Male and female teachers spent comparable amounts of time talking and listening in the classroom, and using indirect versus direct teaching styles. No significant differences between male and female teachers exist in terms of amount of acceptance of student feelings or ideas, or in the amounts of silence or confusion in the classroom. Most of the differences that were found to exist between males and females (amount of time spent lecturing, questioning and giving directions) are comparatively minor in terms of overall teaching pattern, although the fact that male teachers tend to be more critical than female teachers is noteworthy.

Two rather interesting trends emerged in the analysis of the interaction data. Firstly, the low level of teaching patterns used by teachers of both sexes was surprising; over 85% of the lessons taught can be classified as Level 1 patterns (concerned primarily with subject matter and dominated by the teacher). Such patterns limit pupil participation in the classroom, and do not contribute as strongly as higher order teaching styles to positive pupil attitude and achievement.

A second finding (one which was previously noted by earlier researchers such as Good, Sikes, and Brophy, 1973) was that both male and female teachers interacted considerably more often with boys than with girls, both positively and negatively. Why are girls comparatively ignored in the primary classroom? Is it because they are more docile and passive? If this is so, is it because they have been socialized into passivity and docility? Is the temperament of female children more suited to the demands of the classroom and its interpersonal structure? Do teachers tend to call upon the more active, lively children (who are more likely to be male than female)? Questions such as these require close research attention - teachers may unwittingly be intensifying sex role categories.

Data from the interviews, on the other hand, suggest the existence of several differences between male and female primary teachers. Strengths and weaknesses (in terms of disciplinary skills, organizational skills, subject area abilities) were detailed as being different between the two sexes. Basic teaching styles and teacher-pupil interaction were described as being dissimilar in many ways.

Interestingly, it appears that the principals and the parents were more aware of differences between male and female primary teachers than were the teachers themselves or their pupils. Perhaps actual in-classroom contact with teachers of both sexes causes individuals to perceive teachers as "teachers" rather than as male or female.

An alternative explanation to the difference in opinions between these two groups (that is, principals and parents as opposed to teachers and children) may involve an age factor. The average age of the teachers in the present study was 29, which is considerably younger than that of the average administrator. Perhaps less stringent sex role attitudes are held by younger individuals. In addition, the children in the sample may hold relatively liberalized sex role attitudes as a result of their home life; there is a fairly high incidence (almost 50%) of working mothers and of single parent families (approximately 19%) in the sample.

Despite the efforts of the women's liberation movement, evidence of sexual stereotyping existed in the data. The image of the female teacher as comparatively helpless (she often has to ask the male principal for assistance with classroom problems) and weak (children take advantage of female teachers) is pervasive. The image of the male as an authority figure (children listen better to a male) and as an athletic figure (males are better physical education teachers) is evident thoughout the data. Several children volunteered the information that male teachers are smarter than female teachers; no-one proposed the alternative.

The majority of individuals interviewed were in favor of hiring more males to teach at the primary level. The belief that a male role model is beneficial to the development of both male and female children is strongly held. In addition, the over-feminization of the elementary school and the structure of male administrator-female teachers are concerns of many individuals.

The results of the technical interaction analysis of the present study suggest that male primary teachers can be as effective as female primary teachers. The interview results indicate a desire for more male primary teachers and a willingness to integrate them into the system. The present researcher feels that more male teachers would likely be a positive addition to the primary teaching staff.

SECTION III: Implications

1. Research Implications

The interaction analysis section of the present study represents one of the most elaborate attempts to date to systematically explore differences between male and female teachers in terms of process variables. The interview portion represents an attempt to provide practical, subjective data with which to contrast and compare the more technical data.

Several practical limitations narrowed the scope of the present study. The research was conducted entirely by one investigator, and hence was geographically bound. Due to time constraints, the data were gathered within a period of a few months. Replication of the study in other school systems may be useful, and a longitudinal design (which would permit the inclusion of variables such as effect of teacher sex on pupil achievement) may provide interesting additional findings.

Because of the scarcity of male primary teachers in the city in which this study was conducted, the sample size was rather small. Matching male and female teachers exactly was difficult because of the limited population involved. A more exact sampling procedure could be undertaken if future studies are conducted in larger metropolitan areas where a greater number of males are teaching at the primary level.

Future researchers in the area of sex differences of primary teachers may want to control for variables such as pupil IQ, pupil achievement, or subject matter. No attempt was made in the present study to examine nonverbal communication between teacher and pupil. An examination of such variables may alter the nature of the present set of findings.

The design of standardized questionnaires to investigate the issue of the male primary teacher would be a useful adjunct to this research area.

More research is urgently needed to explore the effects of teacher sex in the primary grades. Questions concerning interaction of teacher sex and pupil sex, effects of teacher sex on children's sex role development, and effects of teacher sex on children's achievement at the primary level have not yet been satisfactorily answered.

Research on the primary male teacher to date is sparse; more information is urgently required. In our recent preoccupation with the study of women's issues, we have tended to ignore the empirical investigation of the male school teacher. The influence of male role models on young children is a contemporary, significant issue, and as such, merits close examination.

2. Practical Implications

The results of the present investigation have several practical implications for school systems in terms of staffing and educational practices.

The analysis of data obtained from the Flanders' portion of the study indicates that teachers of both sexes tend to employ a relatively low level of teaching style. Teachers can be taught to examine their own interaction patterns and can be trained to use more effective teaching styles. Pre-service and in-service teacher education in the practical application of interaction analysis techniques may be useful in improving classroom communication and teacher effectiveness.

Sexually stereotyped attitudes were evident throughout the interview section of the study. It is recommended that school personnel be made aware of the ways in which such stereotypes are perpetuated. Are young children being encouraged to perform only sex-appropriate activities? Are sexually stereotyped readers still in use? Is the image of male principal, female teacher being instilled in children entering school? Workshops in the area of sexual stereotyping (for administrators, teachers, and interested parents) may be useful in reducing existing sex biases and role confusion in young children.

A scarcity of suitably trained male primary teachers exists at the present time. To alleviate this scarcity it is necessary to begin at the teacher training level. Faculties of education tend to automatically guide male students in the direction of working with older pupils. Perhaps through exposure to the primary level (through practice teaching, for example) some male students may realize that teaching young children can be both challenging and rewarding. In addition, administrators in the personnel departments of school systems should be made aware of the benefits of male primary teachers and of the desirablility of having a more equalized ratio of male to female teachers at every grade level.

An equal ratio of male to female teachers will likely not occur in the immediate future. Until the shortage of male primary teachers is ameliorated, male models can be introduced to the schools in several other capacities. Male counselors, librarians, teacher aides, and noon hour volunteers could provide useful role models to young children and contribute a masculine influence to a traditionally female environment.

It is the opinion of the writer that primary school children of both sexes would benefit from interaction with teachers of both sexes in the establishment of conflict-free sex role identities. Recent trends concerning the roles of males and females in contemporary society have led to the need for careful reassessment of hiring practices at the primary level.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview: Teachers

Name of Teacher:

School: Grade:

Class Size: Number of Boys: Number of Girls:

1. Why did you choose teaching as a profession?

2. Why did you choose to teach young children?

3. Do you have a preference for teaching boys or girls? If so, which one, and why?

4. What, if any, differences have you observed between boys and girls of primary school age? For example: any differences in maturation, behavior, academic ability, physical coordination.

5. Female Teachers Only:

   Have you ever worked with any male primary teachers? What were your impressions?

6. Male Teachers Only:

   Describe your experiences as a male primary teacher. What sort of reactions did you receive - positive or negative?

7. Should there be more or fewer males teaching at the primary level? Please give reasons for your response.

Interview: Principals

Name: School:

1. If given the choice of hiring an equally qualified male or female primary teacher, which would you employ? Why?

2. In your experience as a teacher and administrator, have you noticed any differences in the teaching styles of male and female teachers?

3. Do you see a need for more or fewer male teachers at the primary level? Please give reasons for your choice.

Interview: Pupils

Name: Sex:

School: Teacher:

1. Have you ever had a man teacher before?

2. Do you think you would rather have a man teacher or a lady teacher? Why?

3. Who do you think would be nicer to you? A man or a lady teacher?

4. Who do you think would be friendlier?

5. Who would laugh and smile more?

6. Who would get angry more?

7. Who do you think would make school more fun?

8. Who do you think would make it easier for you to learn new things?

9. Who do you think would keep better order in the classroom? Do you think that a man or a lady would use different ways to keep the children under control? Can you give some examples?

10. What might be some more differences between a man teacher and a lady teacher?

Interview: Parents

Name of Child:

Sex: Grade: Age: School:

Occupations of Wage Earner(s):

Person filling out questionnaire: Mother__ Father__ Both parents__

Single parent family: Yes _____ No _____ Which parent ______________

1. Would you prefer to have a teacher of the same/opposite sex to your child teaching him/her?

2. Do you think your child's teacher has helped in his/her progress (academic, social, emotional, etc.)? Please be specific.

3. Do you feel that the sex of your child's teacher has affected his/her growth - either positively or negatively. If so, how?

4. Would you like to see more or fewer male teachers at the primary level? Please give reasons for your choice.

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE OF FLANDERS' INTERACTION ANALYSIS SYSTEM

SAMPLE 15-MINUTE TRANSCRIPTS
(Male Teacher)

T - Teacher
B - Boy
G - Girl

T - O.K. Boys and girls - would you come and form your circle?

Pause

B - Mr. ______ if you want it to go up higher I know where to put it.

All

T - Form a good circle please - you can see that there's chalk lying there.

B - There's chalk lying right over here.

All

T - Would you mind getting into the circle here please.

All

T - Belinda

G - Yes

T - Are you ready, Amanda? Is that especially for the purpose that you are using it?

T - Now this circle's just a little flat here. Can you move backwards a tiny bit please.

All

T - That's it. This group here. That's good. Now.

All

T - Laurie's the only one who doesn't seem to be in the circle.

All

T - OK. Now we're all fully aware of the time of year it is - it's winter time. And we're all also fully aware of the fact that Christmas is coming. And today I want to start a little unit on Christmas - not just Christmas here in Edmonton - it's Christmas - That we should learn a broader meaning of the word Christmas - the meaning of Christmas. And that's one of the reasons we've got this circle so that we can discuss it together and start our little unit. Now I've asked Melinda to look up something and I've asked Brian to look up something. And I would like to hear them tell me what they have found.

All

T - I've asked you to look up one particular word. Did you?

B - Brian's going to say it.

T - Brian, did you find the word you were to look up yet?

B - Yes

T - I think Brian can do it.

B - Well, it means...

G - Are we going to be talking about Christmas in different countries?

T - Partly. Now you'll notice if you look around the circle - you will notice if you look around the circle, that each one of us is a different kind of person. Not only do we look different, behave differently, dress differently and eat differently - all our people have different backgrounds. For instance I can look at - well, let me ask you this question. How many of you have parents or grandparents who lived in another country?

All

T - Parents or grandparents who lived in a different country?

B - No

All (chorus of yes's).

T - That's - see most of us who - I shouldn't have my hand up, because...

B - My grandma lives in Vancouver.

T - A country of course. You know what I mean - other than Canada. I don't mean a different city. Okay, we'll start with Tammy - Tammy, who came from Ireland.

G - My grandma.

T - Your grandma. Okay.

G - And my grandpa. I can't remember.

T - Hm-mm. Uh, Misha.

G - My dad came from Holland, and my grandma and grandpa came from Scotland.

T - Um-hm. Okay, there's three different parts of the world already. You'll have to speak clearly, won't you Rufus.

B - blurred

T - Would you speak up a little clearer.

B - All four of them lived in India.

T - Okay. Rufus's parents and grandparents all came from India. Really a quite different part of the world. Paul.

B - My dad came fram Vancouver.

T - Ah, but Vancouver's still in Canada, although that's a different part of Canada. That's very nice but I'd like only those who have parents or grandparents that came from other countries. Kim.

G - My granny cames from Martins.

T - Where's that?

G - It's by Smoky Lake.

T - Ok, again Smoky Lake is a nice part of the world, but it happens to be in Canada. I would appreciate it if just for the moment we could talk about other parts of the world other than Canada.

All

G - Mine came from Scotland.

T - Colleen's grandparents came from Ireland and Scotland - again we have Ireland represented and Scotland. Shelly?

G - From Germany.

T - And from Germany. Now that's interesting. A lot of these countries mentioned so far play a very important part in another word that I'm going to bring up later.

T - Yes, dear.

G - My dad came from Poundmaker.

T - Where's Poundmaker?

G - Poundmaker.

T - Yes. Well, that isn't out of the country either. But the people who live there have different customs than any of those who have been mentioned. Maybe we should include them, because those people are what we call natives of Canada. They have entirely different - um, outlook on life than some of us who have lived in Canada for a long time. Robin. Robbie.

B - My granny and grandpa are _____ and they came from Denmark.

T - Um'hm. Denmark. Another country we haven't heard from.

B - My dad came from Scotland and my grandpa and great-great-grandpa came from Germany.

T - Scotland and Germany again. Jake.

B - Hawaii. My dad.

T - Is that right? We haven't heard from the United States. They came from the United States. Jason?

B - Um, my dad.

T - Speak up, will you please, Jason.

B - My dad came from Ireland.

T - Speak up, Brian please.

B - Um, my grandma and grandpa - well, they lived in Michigan - well, my dad is from Michigan and my dad came from -

T - Okay, that's another set of people who have come from the United States. Brian Vincent?

B - My grandmother and my mum comes from Romania.

T - Romania. That's interesting - not too many people that I know of came from Romania. It's amazing the amount of background we've got from all over the world, including India.

B - My dad and my mum came from Denmark.

T - Denmark again - that's very good, George

T - Denis, Darren.

B - My dad's grandpa is from Korea.

T - Korea. That's over in the Orient.

G - My opah and omah live - used to live in Germany.

T - I like those terms that you've used - we don't hear those too often, Laurie. What's those terms again please?

G - My omah and opah.

T - Omah and opah. Uh-huh.

G - Omah means grandma and opah means grandfather.

T - Very interesting. I think they're kinda nice sounds, those words, like them. Okay. Okay, I would like you to look around again at this circle. Right, Misha Don't correct someone unless you're sure. I'm sure.

G - I was just telling her that in Holland we say the same things.

T - Yes, I would suggest that they do. There are many of our customs and there are many of our languages that have a lot in ~~common~~. Now if you look around this circle, you'll see that most of us look somewhat the same. There are a few of us that look a little different - now you take Rufus. He doesn't look quite the same as some of us. And there's a good reason for that. Most of us that - we come from or our grandparents have come from - they came from Europe. Like Ireland, Scotland, Germany, Denmark, a few of these other places - they're all in a place called Europe. Now Rufus's parents, or grandparents did not come from Europe they came from India, a sub-continent of Asia. And Monica looks a little different to us too, because her parents and grandparents have been what we call natives of this country. Lived here before white man came to this country. And most of us you see, our people have descended from other countries because Canada is such a nice place. Now you can see with all of the backgrounds, that we all have different ways - our grandparents and the people before us - have different ways of living. And they did things differently. They had different kinds of food. They had different kinds of ways of celebrating. And what is Christmas. Christmas is... Well, let's see what the dictionary has to say. Who look up Christmas? Please read it very loud and clear, will you please, Belinda. Now hold up your book, dear, so your voice will come right across to all of us.

G - A yearly celebration of the birth of Christ in December. A Christmas tree is an evergreen hung with decorations at Christmastime.

T - Thank you, Belinda. There was a word in there she used that was rather interesting. She said it was a celebration. Okay. That is was. Christmas is - you know a compound word, don't you. Okay. Compound words - compound words are a - two or more words go together to make a new word. Christmas is that kind of a word. It's made up of Christ and mas. Now, in some churches, they celebrate Masses. They have a Mass for this and a Mass for that. Now, they have a celebration. So you see the word Christmas - celebration of Christ. Now - we take Christmas for granted - what is December the 25th. It's ...

All - Christmas

T - And what is Christmas?

All - Jesus' birthday.

T - Right. Christ's birthday. Now. Not all of us in the world celebrate Christmas. Now, not all of us do.

B - I don't

T - Okay, Rufus. Would you tell us why you don't celebrate Christmas?

B - We don't have any sonw in our country.

T - Ah, but why - isn't Christmas - we don't celebrate snow. We celebrate Christmas - the birth of Christ. Now why do you not celebrate Christmas?

B - I don't know.

T - You don't know?

B - No, I don't know.

T - Ah. Well that would be an interesting thing to talk over with your parents tonight. Maybe I can suggest why. There are many parts of the world where they are not what we call Christmas - people who believe in Christ. In parts of the world, they have other people that they believe in, that have contact with or base their religion on. You see, most of us in here are what they call Christians - most of us in here are what we call Protestants. A certain group of Christians. Now the Christians celebrate Christ. Now that person that you were talking about awhile ago, Darren, that friend of yours who came from Korea, may or may not celebrate Christmas. There are a lot of pepole who live in our own country who don't celebrate Christmas because they don't believe the same as we do. We have different things. Now, Brian Voke, would you read out nice and loud and clear so everyone can hear, what custom means.

T - Brian can do it on his own boys and you will hear it.

B - No, that's costume.

T - I can't hear you Brian.

B - I can't find it.

T - Then you'd better look again.

B - Maybe that's not the right dictionary.

T - Would you be good enough to help him in this sense. Can anyone spell custom? Can you spell custom, Michael? Spell custom. Can you spell custom. Michael?

B - Yeh.

T - Would you spell it for him.

B - C - o - t

T - No

Giggle

B - Customs

T - Okay, customs. Cut. I don't know. Brian, how you could possibly get "on" out of that word custom. That's rather interesting. Now, while we're waiting for Brian, we'll hear something from Brian and Brian Vincent this time. Jade, you're disforming the circle. Jason, you move in a little bit please. Come on, move over Eddie please. that's it. Move in a little. Jason. Misha has something she wishes to say to us. Shall we listen?

G - Um, in Holland, they have - they have St. Nicholas instead of Christmas and it's on December the fifth. And...

T - Would you save that for a while Misha. Because that's exactly the kind of thing we're all going to be talking about. And I would like you to save that so we can hear about it because it might be interesting. We'll save that, okay.

B - I've never hear of that before.

T - Some of us haven't heard of that before as Craig says.

B - I never.

T - Brian - Vincent.

B - Well, Romanian people don't celebrate Christmas the very same way as

T - Uh-huh. Another group of people that don't celebrate the same exactly - exactly the same way. Did you hear his wording? Exactly, the same way. Yes, we'll hear from you later on that, because this is exactly what we're talking about, we're going to talk about all these ideas. Now Brian, nice and loud and clear please, so everyone can hear.

B - Unusual action habits. It was in his custom to rise early. A habit.

T - Let's skip that one. Do you have another meaning?

B - Maintain for so long that it has almost the force of law.

T - Okay, that's very good. May I see it now, Brian, please. May I see it now, please, Brian?

B - Mr. _____ that's a funny looking pen.

T - Thank you very much. I'll just reread what Brian has read to us. Okay. A habit maintained for so long that it has almost the force of law. Okay. In other words, the way we do things - habit, the way we do things. Now, can you think back to all the Christamses you can remember and decide on some of the things that we as a group of people seem to do every year concerning Christmas. In other words, can you name some of the customs that we follow in celebrating Christmas. Can you mention one thing that we all have - most of us, I won't say all - that most of us have in our house for Christmas. Who can think of what that is. Ah, Robbie?

B - A Christmas tree.

T - A Christmas tree. How many of us have a Christmas tree in our house at Christmas? You see, it seems to be quite a custom in Canada . That custom did not begin in Canada. That is not a Canadian custom. It has become one. It started in another part of that world, that idea. Okay, can you think of one other thing.

G - Peggy.

T - Peggy, I'm sorry, Peggy, but I don't think we will tolerate that. Andrea sit up straight, please. Can you think of another thing that we all seem to do at Christmas time. Ah, would you do me a favor please, uh, Kim. See that pen. That's a very special pen and that ink that's in that pen won't come off once it's one. I want you to use that pen and list on that bristol board some of the things that we seem to do every year.

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WORKING MATRIX

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9			10	2					9	2	23
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TOTAL	-	3	43	16	109	15	16	40	23	15	280
%	0	1.07	15.36	5.71	38.93	5.36	5.71	14.29	8.21	5.36	

a. Teacher-talk Ratio	$\frac{1 - 7}{\text{Total}}$ (1 - 10)	72.14%
b. Student-talk Ratio	$\frac{8 - 9}{\text{Total}}$ (1 - 10)	22.5%
c. Ten's Ratio	$\frac{10}{\text{Total}}$ (1 - 10)	5.36%
d. Big ID Ratio	$\frac{1 - 4}{5 - 7}$ = I = indirect = D - direct	.44
e. Little id Ratio	$\frac{1 - 3}{6 - 7}$ = i = motivational = d = control	1.48